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Land policy REVIEW

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UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE
BUREAU OF AGRICULTURAL ECONOMICS

Contributors

Editorial Note: ALL OF THE ARTICLES in this Spring Number look toward the future though all are rooted in experience. Their subjects are ripe for consideration and certain elements in the war and post-war situations make a discussion of them particularly timely.

ARTHUR J. ALTMEYER is Chairman of the Social Security Board.

DR. F. D. MOTT, Senior Surgeon (R) in the U. S. Public Health Service, heads two War Food Administration health programs as Chief Medical Officer of the Farm Security Administration and Chief of the Health Services Branch of the Office of Labor. He is National Activity Leader in Rural Health and Sanitation, Interbureau Committee on Post-War Programs, U. S. Department of Agriculture.

F. D. PATTERSON is President of Tuskegee Institute. Two years ago Dr. Patterson was designated as Special Assistant to the Secretary of Agriculture to assist in developing programs to aid Negro farmers.

BENSON Y. LANDIS, associate secretary of the Federal Council of Churches, was formerly secretary of the American Country Life Association and editor of *Rural America.*

MARION CLAWSON, regional agricultural analyst in the BAE, has devoted recent years to studies in the Columbia River Basin and the Central Valley of California.

E. L. KIRKPATRICK, rural sociologist, for several years was Associate Director of the Rural Project of the American Youth Commission and was simultaneously a member of the advisory committee of the Youth Section of the American Country Life Association.

G. L. TILLERY is traffic specialist in the Defense Supplies Corporation, subsidiary of the RFC; MILDRED BENTON, acting librarian of the USDA, was librarian of the SCS when it had nine branch libraries in its nine regions; LAWRENCE JONES, agricultural economist in BAE, is working on short-term credit; C. E. ENLOW is Chief, Division of Agronomy, SCS, and CHARLES E. KELLOGG is Chief, Division of Soil Survey, BPISAE; DEWITT C. WING, information specialist in USDA, services about 150 editors of the agricultural press.

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Social Security FOR *Farmers*

By ARTHUR J. ALTMEYER. *The Chairman of the Board explains how the insurance features of the social security program operate, the benefits farmers would derive from coverage under it, the problems their coverage would raise, and how these might be solved.*

FARMERS are generally familiar with insurance. They have proved to be good "prospects" for a wide variety of insurance protection against the natural hazards of agriculture. They have insured buildings, equipment, crops, and workstock against loss by fire, hazards of weather and insects, theft, and accidental damage.

Thus far, however, farmers have generally not utilized the insurance principle to safeguard their most valuable single asset—their own earning power. Farmers are not adequately covered by life insurance and few carry health and accident insurance.

According to a nation-wide study of consumer incomes and expenditures, only about 38 percent of white nonrelief farm families having net incomes below $1,500 in 1935–36 carried any life insurance. The average yearly payment for such insurance was only $64.42 per family with insurance. Even when all income classes were included, the percentage of white nonrelief farm families with insurance was only 43.3, and the average expenditure per family only $87.69. Among white nonrelief families living in small cities and villages, the percentage of those with incomes below $1,500 carrying life insurance was 61. The average annual premium paid was $63.21 per family with insurance, or a little less than for insured farm families. When all income classes were taken together, more than 70 percent

of urban families were protected by life insurance, and the average family spent $111.55 a year for life insurance premiums.

There are several possible reasons for the lack of private life, health, and accident insurance among farmers. A reasonably adequate amount of such insurance would absorb a relatively high proportion of the average farmer's cash income. The best time to purchase life insurance is during one's early working life. But this is precisely the time when the financial burdens of the young farm operator are particularly heavy and he is usually then seeking to accumulate the money to buy a farm, his equipment, livestock, to pay off his mortgage, and to put his farm generally on a stable financial footing. When this period of stringency is over, a farmer may be too old to get life insurance on advantageous terms.

Even when he is not pressed for money by the needs of his farm and his family, a farmer hesitates to buy private life insurance because his income is uncertain. A year or two of poor crops or unfavorable prices, or other emergency, may make it difficult, if not impossible, for him to pay the premiums on a policy of any considerable size. Fear that his policy may lapse thus deters him from securing any life insurance protection, or means that he takes out only inadequate protection against premature death or loss of earning power through old age or permanent disability.

One form of insurance protection against these risks is still unfamiliar to the great majority of farmers. Except in broad outlines, it is not well understood even by many agricultural leaders. This is insurance under the old-age and survivors insurance program provided by the Social Security Act.

Undaunted

Nothing will ever be attempted if all possible objections must first be overcome.

—Samuel Johnson

Now

The program is operated by the Federal Government, and it now covers some 50-odd million industrial and commercial employees. It is paying monthly benefits to about a million persons, including nearly 500,000 aged retired workers, 117,000 wives of such workers, 250,000 children of retired or deceased workers, 130,000 widows, and 4,000 aged dependent parents of deceased workers. These benefits amount to about 16 million dollars per month.

Workers in jobs covered by the old-age and survivors insurance program pay contributions of 1 percent of their wages up to $3,000 a year. Employers in the program make contributions of 1 percent of the wages they pay their workers. When a worker dies or reaches retirement age, he or his survivors may apply for the benefits provided by the law. Monthly benefits are computed on the basis of the worker's average monthly wages in covered employment and on the number of years during which he participated in it. No inquiry is made into the family's assets or

income. The "primary benefit" of the worker is computed by taking 40 percent of the first $50 of his average monthly wages, plus 10 percent of the remainder, and increasing this amount by 1 percent for each year in which he earned $200 or more in covered employment.

Benefits to survivors are figured at specified percentages of the worker's primary benefit (75 percent for a widow, 50 percent for a wife, child, or dependent parent) but the total benefit may not exceed $85 per month or twice the worker's primary benefit, whichever is lower.

Who Covered

All persons are compulsorily covered by the old-age and survivors insurance program when they are employed at industrial or commercial jobs in the continental United States, Alaska, and Hawaii. Agricultural labor is among the several major types of employment still excluded and earnings from a farm or an independent trade, business, or profession, are not yet covered.

Farmers Excluded

Only recently have farmers become aware of this program as a possible source of security for themselves. They have had little occasion to become familiar with it, as relatively few had taken out "Social Security cards" or worked in employment it covers. For example, only about 32 percent of the farmers in Arkansas and 8 percent of those in Iowa had acquired "Social Security cards" by the spring of 1941, according to a sample study made by the Bureau of Old-Age and Survivors Insurance and the Farm Security Administration. Only 18 percent in Arkansas and 6 percent in Iowa had any earnings credited to their social security wage records by the end of 1940.

Since that time the situation has changed materially. Thousands of farmers have found temporary nearby employment. Other thousands have left their farms with fathers, sons, wives, or tenants, and have gone to cities to work in war plants. Farm laborers and farmers' sons and daughters have gone into industry at high wartime wages. Farm people have thus become acquainted with the old-age and survivors insurance program through actual participation. Many have paid sizable contributions and acquired rights under it, which will diminish or disappear if they return to peacetime work on the farm.

Post-War Security

Farmers are thinking seriously about post-war problems of agriculture. They fear a return to the low level of farm prices and the accompanying drop in farm land values similar to that which occurred after the last war, when farm prices fell 66 percent in a single year and when 400,000 farmers lost their land by foreclosure. They recall the long period of agricultural distress that began before the last great depression. They know that hundreds of thousands of farm boys now in the armed services will want farms of their own after the war. Some older farmers plan to retire and make a place for their sons. Others cannot so long as their future is insecure; this group particularly realizes that, if they could have been a participant in this insurance program since it began to operate in 1937, they might

be able to stop active work after the war.

Farmers of all ages need insurance against the possibility that their death or disablement will leave their families without adequate income. Their plans for meeting the other uncertainties of the post-war future would rest on a better foundation if the low-cost protection of the old-age and survivors insurance program were available to them.

Medical Care

Farmers face another hazard that could well be but is not yet covered by a national insurance program—the cost of family medical and hospital care. The experience of the Farm Security Administration with prepaid medical care has shown that this kind of insurance protection can considerably improve the medical and hospital services available to rural families. Farm people find it so difficult to pay for these services out of their own earnings that rural medical and hospital care is still, in most sections, far below the standards in urban areas, both in quality of service and in the amount of service available.

Permanent Disability

Insurance against the risk of permanent disablement before retirement age is not yet provided under the old-age and survivors insurance program. But it is an insurable risk to which farmers are peculiarly exposed. Studies by the National Safety Council reveal that farm work is one of the most hazardous of all occupations. But a farmer is not protected by workmen's compensation laws, and must himself pay for medical and hospital treatment when he is injured at work and the loss of earning power is added to this expense.

Ultimate

Agriculture is the ultimate foundation upon which, in the order of things as they now exist, our entire economic, political, and social organization rests.

—Otis Durant Duncan

Hired Hands

Hired farm hands need insurance against the same hazards. In addition, they are faced with the risk of involuntary unemployment. In every State the industrial and commercial employee now enjoys protection under an unemployment insurance program operated by the State in cooperation with the Federal Government, but only in the District of Columbia is the farm worker eligible for unemployment benefits. All other jurisdictions specifically exclude "agricultural labor" from them.

These lacks tend to keep competent workers out of the agricultural labor market. Workers who have left the farm for wartime industrial jobs are likely to remain in such work after the war if they can, so as to keep the security rights they have built up. Were the same

sort of insurance protection extended to paid farm work, farmers would find it easier to compete with industry in hiring competent workers now and after the war.

Indirect Advantages

Farmers pay many kinds of State, county, and local taxes. In rural States, the greater part of the taxes are paid by farmers. Much of this revenue goes to pay for relief to aged, incapacitated, or dispossessed farmers and unemployed, aged, or disabled farm workers. If some of these needs were covered by social insurance, their cost would be distributed among the entire population in proportion to their earnings, and would not fall so heavily upon the members of rural communities.

Can Be Done

Employers who are subject to the program now file quarterly pay-roll reports showing the name, Social Security account number, and amount earned by each of their covered employees. The Social Security Board credits the wage record of each worker with the wages reported for him, and uses these records to determine the worker's insurance rights and the benefits payable to him or his survivors.

During the 8 years in which only industrial and commercial employees have been covered, experience has been gained and ways have been discovered for solving the administrative problems of bringing farmers into the program. Farmers are now generally accustomed to making reports to the Government, for income-taxes for instance. With very little change, the same reports could be used as a basis for figuring the farmer's social security contribution. For farmers who do not file income-tax returns, a simple method of estimating income has been devised. This is called the value-of-services method. A value is set on the farmer's own services equal to what he would have to pay a hired worker to replace himself. A farmer might consider his own services to his farm to be at least equal in value to those of his highest paid hand. A farmer who hires no labor could value his services according to the current wage rates for good farm hands in his locality, using the monthly rates published by the Department of Agriculture as a guide.

Devices

For farm workers, the method of collecting wage reports and contributions would vary according to the numbers and types of workers hired. Large units hiring 10 or more persons probably keep accurate pay-roll records already, and they could use the quarterly pay-roll-reporting plan without difficulty, at least for their regular hands. Smaller farming enterprises might prefer to use a stamp plan which requires no bookkeeping. Special wage stamps would be bought by employing farmers, who would place them in stamp books carried by their workers whenever wages were paid. Half of the cost of the stamps would be deducted from the worker's cash wage, and the wages indicated by the stamps in his book would be credited to the worker's social security account along with his other wages or income from farming.

Thus, farmers could get full credit in their social security records for work on their own farms, paid work on other farms, and for seasonal work in industrial or commercial jobs. Their participation as workers, as employers of labor, and as independent working farmers would involve a very minimum of inconvenience to them.

Adaptations

Because the present program has been in operation for about 8 years, farmers and farm workers without previous coverage would suffer a serious handicap if they came in now and eligibility conditions and the method of figuring benefit rates remained unchanged. In general, the solution would be to disregard, in determining eligibility to benefits and computing benefits rates, the period before the coverage extension during which the worker was not in covered employment, but to give full credit for any covered employment and earnings he had before coverage was extended. In this way, there would not be any loss of insurance rights already acquired by farm people through wartime industrial work or through seasonal work in canning factories, logging enterprises, and other covered jobs.

Ways have been worked out also for determining insurance rights in terms of years of participation, as an alternative to the present quarterly method, which is not well adapted to the annual cycle of farming.

Similarly, alternative methods of making contribution payments have been developed for different kinds of farmers. Those who receive most of their income from the sale of a single crop could make their payments annually. Those who have a rather steady year-around income from the sale of poultry, eggs, dairy products, could pay on a quarterly basis, and if they wish could use special contribution stamps to spread the cost evenly over the quarter.

Costs and Benefits

Benefits under the program now cost employers and employees a total of 2 percent of wages. This rate was originally scheduled to rise stepwise to a maximum of 6 percent in 1949, but the first scheduled increase has been postponed four times by Congressional action. Protection for their workers against unemployment now costs employers a maximum of 3 percent of wages paid.

The Social Security Board believes that if a comprehensive program is adopted covering the entire population, the maximum rates of contribution to be paid by employers and employees should not exceed 6 percent each. If the cost at some future date rises above this figure, the Board believes it should be met through general taxation, since the cost of public assistance would be so much less. Such a comprehensive program would provide protection against old-age, premature death, permanent disability, temporary disability and the costs of adequate medical and hospital care. The Board believes that the cost of protection for farmers themselves against all of these hazards, except temporary disability and unemployment, would not exceed 7 percent of farmers' annual incomes. This cost would be largely offset by reduced expenditures for medical care and hospitalization and by reduced taxes for local relief of all kinds.

RURAL HEALTH PARITY: *Federal-State Cooperation*

By F. D. MOTT, M. D. *How to get adequate medical services? How to pay the bill? Here a way toward promising solutions of these vexing rural problems is clearly outlined.*

MANY STATES have shown a vigorous interest in post-war planning of rural health services. The planning has been concerned chiefly with such problems as shortages of physicians and hospitals. It has given special emphasis to the needs of the indigent, although the definition of "medical indigency" is always obscure.

Realistic post-war planning of health services cannot be done by the States alone. This is eminently true of the predominantly rural States. The very nature of the problem is such as to require aid from outside State boundaries if it is ever to be solved, for an analysis of the various complex problems of rural health shows the difficulties to be fundamentally economic. So long as remedial measures are limited to those taken within the confines of the several States, the net results will be commensurate with the lower per capita income of the rural States or the higher income of the industrial States. To elevate the quality and volume of health services available to rural people to the high average of which our Nation is capable requires national planning.

There is, nevertheless, a great deal of planning for better rural health services that the States not only can do, but must do, if there are to be Nation-wide achievements in improving rural health. As an underlying principle, State planning should be developed within the general framework of the National action we may reasonably anticipate.

Searching analysis of all the problems of rural health shows that the problem of paying the medical bill is basic to all. This is not to gainsay the importance of general social measures like housing, sanitation, nutrition, education, or community organization insofar as they affect health. Within the more special sphere of medical and related services, however, the problem of purchasing power effective to pay the cost of physicians' care—or dental care or hospitalization or drugs or eyeglasses—runs basic to the more spectacular and evident problems of the supply of active rural physicians and hospital beds, and all the rest.

Within this problem, we have happily graduated from the day when it was necessary to argue that prepayment by groups provides an easier and more efficient method of paying for health services than postpayment by individuals. All groups, public and professional, now concede (after about 30 years of pub-

lic debate in this country, and 60 years if we include Europe) that the unpredictability of sickness in individuals and its relatively certain predictability in given groups make it typically amenable to the application of the insurance principle.

Payment Issue

The payment issue today in this country has passed to another sphere. The question has now become: Should group prepayment be on a basis of local control and voluntary participation (a mechanism with which we have had abundant experience) or on a basis of National control with "compulsory" or universal participation? In general, the groups and interests that were once totally opposed to insurance of *any* type are now the staunchest proponents of the former policy, while those who were long the protagonists of insurance of *some* type to provide health services now favor the latter policy.

This explosive issue will be resolved by the American people. It need not, and probably cannot, be solved by the States alone or by their post-war planning committees. Suffice it to say here that the experience of 33 other Nations has shown that voluntary and local plans of health insurance inevitably lead to so-called compulsory and National plans, and that sooner or later it becomes clear that voluntary and local plans tend to provide inadequate services to those in lesser need and still fewer or no services to those in greatest need.

Nevertheless, the organization of local and voluntary plans—such as the local or Statewide plans set up or contemplated by hospital, medical, or agricultural groups—serves a constructive purpose and should be encouraged. In the absence of a National program of social security including farm people and providing health services, they can do an immediate job. If such a program is legislated by the new Congress, which seems quite possible, such plans will be in a position to provide much of the machinery that is essential for administering any type of National program of health insurance.

Sponsorship

Whatever State or local plans are developed, they should be rooted in the widest possible sponsorship. If they are to be actuarially sound and financially solvent, it is essential that they include the broadest possible membership, with minimal income or occupational limitations. To the extent practicable, membership fees should be proportionate to income in observance of the medically traditional ability-to-pay principle. The costs of plan membership for the indigent might be borne out of general tax funds, in a way like that contemplated in recently proposed social security legislation. On such a basis, services could be offered with the fewest restrictions in quantity or quality, and the plan would fit most effectively into a framework of National planning and action.

Constructing Facilities

Development of plans for hospital and health center construction requires a similar broad conception of Federal-State cooperation. Here the need for Federal assistance is more generally recognized, though an oc-

casional rural State has developed ambitious plans on an autonomous basis. Most realistic hospital authorities, however, recognize that the tremendous capital investment required to establish good modern hospitals is beyond the financial ability of the rural communities and rural States that need such institutions most. The answer could be found in a grant-in-aid program on a variable matching basis, in which the States in greatest need would receive the highest proportion of Federal assistance. The same would apply to the construction of projects for environmental sanitation, so desperately needed in the rural areas—either on a community scale in small towns or on a family scale in the open country.

Hospital Planning

Before any hospitals or health centers are constructed it is essential that intelligent planning be done so that well-equipped institutions of appropriate type and capacity will be established in the proper places. This requires some type of master plan for every State, based on an accurate inventory of needs which takes fully into account the health picture in various parts of the State, natural trade areas, transportation facilities, and existing institutions. It seems likely that grant-in-aid legislation for construction of health facilities—as a phase of a post-war public works program to help maintain full employment—will stipulate such master plans as a condition to the issuance of grants to any State. Promoting the development of such plans is a first-rate task for all State post-war planning groups to tackle. Whatever the final method of financing, such plans will be indispensable.

In estimating needs for hospital beds, we are faced promptly with the problem of estimating the probable effective demand for hospital services. All health workers are familiar with the paradox of low hospital occupancy in areas of greatest medical need and fewest available beds. The paradox can be explained only by the fact that using hospitals depends upon having the money to pay rather than on need for hospital care. Without effective methods of paying for hospital or other health services through prepayment or taxation or combinations of these, a magnificent program of hospital construction would result only in a vast network of handsome white elephants in our rural areas.

Health Centers

Forward-looking medical leaders have increasingly pointed to the hospital as the community center of all health services. The concept of the health center has developed, in which the administrative offices and the clinics of the department of public health would be housed, as well as the offices of physicians and dentists, complex diagnostic and therapeutic equipment, laboratory facilities, voluntary health agencies, and an appropriate number of hospital beds. In such a setting, community health work, preventive and therapeutic, would be given the dignity which it should command for the best public interest—as well as the opportunity for integration and the elimination of outmoded barriers between the role of government and the role of private medical enterprise.

A network of such rural health centers should be organized in functional relationship to larger, specialized urban institutions—in much the same way as the armed forces have achieved unparalleled medical efficiency through their system of field units, evacuation and station hospitals, and large general base hospitals. Plans for all this can and should be developed by the States.

War Surplus Equipment

The demobilization period presents us with unprecedented opportunities for obtaining in rural areas surplus military medical property, with which to equip and supply hospitals, health centers, and medical and dental offices. If such items are available at low or nominal cost, as may well be contemplated under the new Surplus Property Act, it may be an invaluable inducement for the community support of new institutions or for the relocation of physicians or dentists to serve areas of need. Preferential treatment under the act is to be extended to tax-supported and charitable community institutions and to veterans who wish to establish themselves in professional careers.

It is highly advisable that a representative body within each State engage now in over-all planning to the end that local communities may be in the best position to take full advantage of available surplus properties.

Public Health

In the field of preventive services on an organized community basis, much progress has been made. Departments of public health have increased and have expanded their functions at an accelerated rate in the last 25 years. Yet much remains to be done if every rural county in the United States is to be served by a well-trained and adequate staff of public health workers.

It would be foolish for every municipality and every county, however small or however poor, to attempt to support a health department of its own. Instead, functional geographic units of local public health administration should be organized, encompassing one county or two counties, or up to five or six counties if that is necessary to acquire a population adequate to support an efficient unit. Obviously this is particularly desirable in sparsely settled rural areas.

The American Public Health Association has prepared such a plan for new determination of public health administrative units and the States can perform an invaluable service by mapping out functional local areas in general accordance with this plan. At the same time, mandatory State legislation is needed to insure some degree of local support for public health activities and to provide adequate appropriations by the State, to supplement the usual Federal contributions.

Key Role

As to functions, the traditional public health responsibilities for environmental sanitation, vital statistics, and the control of the acute communicable diseases have already expanded to include treatment of venereal diseases, medical management of maternity and infancy, improvement of nutrition, diagnosis of cancer, treatment of crippled chil-

dren, prevention of industrial diseases, and numerous other diagnostic and therapeutic medical functions. The treatment of tuberculosis and the management of mental disorders have long been regarded as governmental responsibilities. With increasing knowledge, the line between prevention and treatment becomes hazier and more meaningless. If all health services are to be coordinated and rendered with maximum economy and effectiveness at the county level, it is necessary that health departments step forward to play the key role in general health administration. Otherwise, agencies less vested with the public interest or less skilled in the technique of health work may handle the overall task by default.

Distributing Personnel

The health need of which rural communities and State planning groups appear more acutely conscious than any other relates to the shortages of medical and dental personnel. These shortages are a result rather than a cause of rural difficulties. They are mainly a result of the low purchasing power for medical and dental services and the poor hospital facilities which, in turn, have the same cause. The solution, therefore, may be expected to come through improving the methods of payment for medical and hospital services, as stated at the outset. But beyond this many positive steps can be taken to expedite the redistribution of available personnel to the rural areas from the urban centers and industrialized States to which they have been increasingly attracted in the last 30 years. It is vitally important, too, that positive action be taken quickly in order that rural communities may get their share of the thousands of physicians and dentists now with the armed forces who will be going into civilian practice for the first time.

Thus, it is up to the States to eliminate the Chinese Wall licensure barriers that now keep practitioners from moving from one State to another to practice. Concrete inducements can be offered to attract physicians or dentists to needy areas, like modern office facilities or the costs of transportation, paid out of State and local funds combined. Fellowships might be offered by the medical schools, stipulating that the graduate settle in a rural community for a given number of years at the completion of his training. These and related measures can be taken by the States.

Beyond this there is unquestionably a need for an effective National "manpower" agency for medical and related personnel—an agency to do effectively in peacetime what the National Procurement and Assignment Service for Physicians, Dentists and Veterinarians has been responsible for in wartime. Even without the mandatory powers possessed now by the War Manpower Commission for industrial labor, a far more rational distribution of health personnel could be achieved simply by providing a free flow of information on the available "markets" for "selling" medical or related services in different communities throughout the Nation.

Quality of Service

Finally, much can be done by the States to help elevate the quality of rural medical services. Systematic

post-graduate courses offered by the medical schools and large teaching hospitals could help correct the medical ineptitudes into which isolated rural practice often drives a physician. Continued licensure for medical practice might be made subject to periodic re-examination or to post-graduate study at suitable intervals. Medical school education might be broadened to include training in the social sciences to give the young physician a better understanding of his role in the framework of modern society.

More important, the organization of group practice clinics in rural areas could help to bring to rural people the services of the medical and surgical specialists of which they hear much but seldom see. An ophthalmologist or radiologist or dermatologist could hardly survive financially or scientifically as a rural soloist, but in an organized professional group, serving a rural district of perhaps 30,000 or 50,000 persons, he could be adequately remunerated and kept scientifically "in trim," and could serve rural people with the techniques of modern science. The organization of a functional network of hospitals and health centers would serve the same purpose of elevating the scientific quality of rural services.

To Do the Job

This entire five-fold task of rationalizing the payment for health services, constructing facilities and obtaining necessary equipment, modernizing public health functions and administration, distributing health personnel according to need, and improving the scientific quality of rural medicine is a task big enough to leave manifold assignments for everyone. The rural areas cannot do the job alone; the cities cannot do it alone; the States cannot do it alone; and Washington cannot do it alone. Government as a whole cannot do it alone. Professional men and women must be at the front line to "deliver the goods." No Government bureau ever removed an inflamed appendix.

The teamwork of all is required. But teamwork means that all players in the game do their jobs in full realization of what the other players are doing and have to do, if the team is to win. It would be no more sensible to think that the States can accomplish the task by acting as autonomous units than that the Federal Government could do it alone if it acted on the theory that health services for 130,000,000 people can be administered exclusively from Washington.

There is evidence on all sides that rural people themselves want a parity of health services. The ghost of "socialized medicine" can no longer becloud the issue and obstruct progress toward this goal. It remains only for us to get together and do the job.

Equal

We in this country want nothing less than an equal health opportunity for every citizen.

—Thomas Parran

Negro Education AND GOOD LAND USE

By F. D. PATTERSON. *The relation between education and good land use is direct among Negroes as among white people. With developing influences and emphases in the rural South we may see a slow revolution in the prevention of land waste.*

A CASUAL VISITOR stopped at one of the Negro agricultural high schools located in a rich farming area of a Southern State a few years ago and during his brief visit heard classes in agricultural theory and saw groups of strong, healthy looking boys in their late teens and early twenties tending the school garden and the farm where varied crops were growing.

While watching, the visitor asked the principal if the boys, upon graduation, would return to their farm homes and apply their training to improving the practices carried on by their parents.

"Not a one," replied the principal.

"Why?" was the visitor's somewhat startled inquiry.

"Well, it's like this," informed the principal, "most of these boys come from sharecropper homes and have seen their parents toil year in and year out, with little or nothing to show for their work. So when they finish here, they'll be off to Chicago or some other city. They feel that there is no inducement for them to remain here and face the same discouragements their parents have been unable to overcome."

One aspect of the South's economic problem is revealed in this true experience. Here is a situation in which the States are spending their money for the education of Negro youth only to have them leave the South at the end of the training period and migrate to other sections of the country. This situation is true of both Negro and white youth and is a drain upon the South's limited resources for education. The South loses the money invested in their schooling as well as the intelligent service they could render to aid in the South's economic upbuilding. And it is fair to assume that under the South's biracial pattern, a higher proportion of trained Negro youth than others leave their homes to seek greater freedoms as well as an escape from the often inadequately compensated farm drudgery.

Although low income is the immediate cause of this movement of youth from our southern farms, the basic cause has been shown to be improper use of the land. Pioneer soil conservationists have for decades warned against continued impoverishment of the soil, but it was not until after the disastrous dust

storms following World War I and the development of other conditions that there came a national awareness of the relation between improper land use, rural poverty, and our country's economic structure. Fortunately, along with this national awareness has come a steadily growing appreciation of the place of education as a remedial agency in correcting land abuses.

New Emphasis

Measures undertaken and adopted by our Government to prevent a recurrence of this situation or at least to lessen its effects in a similar world crisis, gave educational leadership a long-awaited opportunity to emphasize those programs which hitherto had been sacrificed or adjusted to the demands of the plantation pattern and they provided new strength to agricultural agencies that were already at work among farmers.

The pioneering educational work of the Extension Service among farmers, as practical and effective as it has been through the years, could not offset some effects of the "system" nor overcome all of the hazards of boll weevils, market fluctuations, lack of protection under the tariffs, and other conditions involving foreign and domestic trade relations. The same deterrents affected National and State programs of vocational education as they relate to agriculture and home economics.

Extensive research by Land Grant Colleges and Experiment Stations developed new and scientific methods of soil improvement, crop cultivation, animal husbandry, and set up varied demonstrations in land use. These procedures have been greatly stimulated by the four Regional Research Laboratories established by the Department of Agriculture. Results of such studies have stimulated widespread interest in education for rural living.

Fresh Approaches

Many other agencies organized to undergird the Nation's agricultural structure have opened new approaches in the field of education by reason of their ready adaptability to instructional processes. Not to be overlooked is the financial assistance they provide.

Financial benefits available through AAA, FSA, PCA, FCA, and related agencies have naturally attracted the farmers but their actual participation in the programs has been an effective process in education. The services of SCS have provided a visual demonstration in soil treatment adapted to selected geographical areas and REA has indirectly induced better living standards in farm homes.

Amazing results of the effects of lime and other fertilizers upon the growth and weight of animals as revealed in studies by Dr. William A. Albrecht of the University of Missouri have heightened interest in soil treatment as related to the health of our people. Here is a new educational implement for advancing the whole program of nutritional adjustment, the need for which Selective Service enlistments so glaringly exposed as we entered World War II.

Not Again

"It shall not happen again," is the challenge for post-war health activities which our classrooms will em-

brace as a result of a new national consciousness.

In a very practical sense one important post-war health job is to get more nutritional information out of class rooms and into pantries and onto the tables of average homes.

A good beginning has been made through several million war emergency home gardens which were grown to offset temporary food shortages in regular channels. A further step will be to capitalize on the present radio and newspaper advertising for vitamins and convince our new vegetable converts that vitamins from that natural source are generally more potent than those obtained in trade-marked packages.

Another source of help will come from returning veterans who, with a little encouragement in their homes, will not drift back to those pre-war eating habits which were largely responsible for an estimated 40-percent rejection at induction centers.

Rarely has education been favored with such a combination of circumstances as has enabled it to lift a term like "nutrition" out of the realm of science and translate it into understandable "bread and butter language" among those who need it most.

Heavy Enlistment

In the over-all plannning to reach the masses of our people, both white and Negro, the support of every available leadership group has been enlisted. A recent study of 222 rural churches in South Carolina by the Soil Conservation Service provides an interesting example as well as convincing educational material. The churches selected were situated in areas where the land was (A) moderately eroded; (B) moderate to severely eroded, and (C) severely eroded. On the A lands the average of contributions for support of the pastor was $432.37, as compared with $241.09 on C lands. In Sunday School collections the comparisons were: A lands $126.11 each and C lands $50.50 each. For buildings and repairs each church in the A group raised an average of $195.40 while those in the C group contributed $60.62.

Centers

Rural Negro ministers, as a group, have caught the significance of better land uses as it affects their Sunday collections. They are joining heartily in the efforts of Negro agricultural workers to guide the farmers toward better farming methods. One of their organized groups, the Fraternal Council of Negro Churches, issues annual letters to rural pastors calling attention to community and cooperative activities which may encourage larger participation by farmers in the several farm programs.

Negro rural schools have become centers for assembling Negro agricultural workers and Negro farmers to discuss farm programs. In most of these schools local Negro teachers of vocational agriculture and home economics are on the faculties, and the school facilities are made available to workers in Negro Extension, FSA, AAA, and to other workers, for meetings with adults, with 4–H Clubs, and NFA boys. The educational correlations through this medium are encouraged by some 450 Negro Jeanes Teachers who exercise a broad and effective leadership

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among Negro schools in 465 counties in the Southern States. These Jeanes Teachers (or Supervisors as they are sometimes called) are experienced teachers, carefully selected, who are paid jointly by the County Boards of Education and the Southern Education Foundation, and named for the Quaker philanthropist, Anna T. Jeanes. Their objectives include organizing and planning school programs that are definitely adapted to the community needs.

Negro Land Grant Colleges are now focal points for State-wide leadership which is planning to give the farmers a broad conception of the benefits offered in Government agricultural programs and of the methods for full participation. In several of the Southern States, Negro State Extension Agents, Negro Teacher-Trainers in Vocational Agriculture and Home Economics, Negro Health Workers, and FSA leaders have their headquarters at these colleges. Some have faculty status with the schools, thus enabling them to assist in planning curricula and otherwise using their influence to keep the colleges actively informed on agricultural trends. State-wide meetings, farmers' conferences, tours to visit farms and experiment stations and soil demonstrations, practice work in rural areas for students who are preparing for service in agiculture—these are some of the methods employed by the colleges to advance in a practical way the several phases of agricultural education.

Changing Attitudes

Still another aspect of indirect educational values in our present farm programs is the changing attitude of many plantation owners towards their Negro tenants and sharecroppers. Conditions growing out of World War II have also helped in bringing about the changes. With emphasis upon soil conservation as a means of producing more food and feed crops, more gardens instead of cotton have been grown "up to the cabin doors." This has tended to reduce the plantation commissary with its traditional pattern of exploitation. Negro County Agricultural and Home Demonstration Agents report that from many plantations which they dared not visit in past years, they now have invitations from the landlords to hold meetings and conduct educational demonstrations for the Negro tenants and sharecroppers. And some of the very large plantations in Mississippi pay the salaries of full-time Negro teachers of vocational agriculture and home economics to serve the adults and children on their land.

Response

Real progress has been made in correlating proper land use with education but there is still much to be done. Many counties in the South with heavy Negro farm populations are still without Negro agricultural workers of any governmental agency and those areas are lagging in the forward steps so essential if we are to have a balanced agriculture here in the South. It is encouraging to report, however, that about 400 additional Negro Extension workers have been employed for the duration to carry on educational programs for increasing the production of food and feed.

The natural responsiveness of the rural Negro to any effort from the

outside to improve his condition has been a valuable asset in encouraging the progress that has been shown. His singing of the spiritual "Trouble Won't Last Always" typifies his unfailing faith and patience.

Cogent Influence

Thirty years ago when Booker T. Washington and Julius Rosenwald planned the rural schools building program, the procedure for qualifying for Rosenwald aid was for the County Boards of Education to appropriate half of the funds, Negroes to raise one-fourth, and Mr. Rosenwald to contribute the last fourth. The eagerness of Negroes in the rural areas to participate was attested by the time, energy, and sacrifices they put into the effort to raise their quotas. During the years while the 5,000 schools were being constructed there were no AAA payments, no FSA or PCA loans, and very little if any 20-cent cotton.

These Rosenwald schools are well-constructed buildings. But that is only part of the story. The spirit of community cooperation which helped to make them possible was of itself an educational value whose influence is felt today in the responsiveness of Negroes to the farm programs as well as to the many activities connected with the war.

Suggestive Figures

Of the 681,790 Negro farm operators, 672,214 live in the South and according to the 1940 census they occupy 30,785,095 acres of land. The same report says that of the 681,790 operators, 174,010 are owners who hold title to 8,215,026 acres of land and have invested $15,671,201 in implements and machinery.

It has been estimated that, in 1943, Negro farmers produced 2 billion pounds of milk, 100 million dozen eggs, harvested 300,000 acres of peanuts for war purposes, and that 47,000 Negroes planted their first gardens.

So far as Negroes are concerned, the rural future depends upon continued education in proper land use and farm programs which will induce more young men and women to remain on farms and to work toward continual improvement as they replace parents who are in their declining years or acquire holdings of their own.

The Alabama State Extension Leader for Negroes, J. R. Otis, has made a study of conditions in eight Black Belt counties of that State. In the foreword to his report Dr. Otis says: "The number of farm boys who remain on the farm is closely related to farms that have financial returns comparable with the pay they are able to get in other vocations."

As we approach the first post-war decade, the continued demand for food, along with possible Government subsidies, may keep markets and prices up to the present level of higher income for our farmers. Effective land use programs provide a sound basis for sound farming and a sound agriculture. They also aid in the practical matter of more profitable returns from farming and these may be an added inducement to more of our trained young people and farm-experienced returning soldiers to become "dirt" farmers and make the most of the land. The outlook is encouraging.

"Right Thinking" ABOUT THE LAND

By BENSON Y. LANDIS. *A sociologist and a churchman, whose work and predilections have brought him in continued and close association with rural conditions and problems, shares with our readers his reflections about the land and our relationship with it.*

IT IS WRITTEN in Proverbs that "as a man thinketh in his heart, so is he." So it is with man's relation to the land, one of the most fundamental of all relationships. The story of man's relation to the land in the United States in the past may in large part be summed up as one of indifference, waste, irresponsibility, and exploitation. Plainly, "wrong thinking" has too often prevailed.

St. Paul wrote in a noble passage that men may be transformed by the renewing of their minds. By the renewal of our minds we may also come to new viewpoints, new convictions, new actions, and thus to the renewal of the soil by which men live. Some of the significant thoughts of others about the land, which have pointed implications for practice, are here reviewed.

"The earth is the Lord's." This declaration from the Psalms is repeated in liturgies and in other literature. The Creator of the universe holds the final deed to the land. It follows that man at his best is only a temporary steward.

But it is not enough to repeat or recognize the grand phrase, "The earth is the Lord's and the fullness thereof." Social thinking requires us to recognize that in a workaday world some of the land is the landlord's; some is the *lend*lord's; and a good portion belongs to governments, really to all the people within a civil jurisdiction. Even when an individual holds what in law is called a deed to land, he has to work with others. Land ownership involves a social process.

Many great thoughts about the land are contained in a small but mighty book, *The Holy Earth,* by Liberty Hyde Bailey. Interestingly enough, the essay was written not on the land but on the sea. An experience on the sea enabled a sage to record the reflections in the book. One of the most significant passages is the following:

"If God created the earth, so is the earth hallowed; and if it is hallowed, so must we deal with it devotedly and with care that we do not despoil it, and mindful of our relations to all beings that live on it. We are to consider it religiously; 'Put off thy shoes from off thy feet, for the place whereon thou standest is holy ground.'

"The sacredness to us of the earth

is intrinsic and inherent. It lies in our necessary relationship and in the duty imposed upon us to have dominion, and *to exercise ourselves even against our own interests.* (Italics mine.) We may not waste that which is not ours. To live in sincere relations with the company of created things, and with conscious regard for the support of all men now and yet to come must be of the essence of righteousness. . . ."

At Home

Thus man must exercise himself, even against his own interests, in order that the rights in the land of generations yet unborn may be protected. The devotion and sacrifices to this end and of one family on one farm are thus of untold value. There is no substitute for honest workmanship and the long view on the home farm. Only the husbandman can do what is required. The whole body politic can do no better than to encourage all that is implied by husbandry.

Afar

Protection of generations yet unborn requires also social controls and techniques. Some things cannot be done on the home farm. They must be done in legislatures and councils far away. They must be done in other nations as well as our own. They can be done only by wide associated effort.

Conservation of these values we hold in trust must be taught and encouraged through schools and organizations and governments. It is never too early to learn of one's responsibility to another. Often "the twentieth man" will not voluntarily cooperate. Therefore sound laws must be enacted for only the will of the whole people, through compulsory cooperation, will enable him to contribute to the public welfare.

Wide diffusion of the ownership of private property among the people is a good policy. Tenancy as usually practiced is generally to be rejected, although we recognize the constructive place it can take in an enlightened citizenry. But private property rights are, and always should be, limited. The old Jewish law was essentially right—the harvest is for all children and not for a few.

Land arrangements that provide good homes for families are more important than commercialization. Probably much of our commercial civilization must be repudiated if the good life is to prevail on the land. The welfare of children is more important than private profit from land. All forms of the land ownership—public, corporate, cooperative, family—should be judged by the extent to which they promote the welfare of families among our people.

Together

We are under obligation to search for and find social arrangements for land use that encourage the highest and best within us. Among inventions of promise, cooperatives provide for an integration of self interest and social responsibility. They enable men to set up the "economic organization of liberty." They aim to promote both liberty and security. Wide cooperative organization should make for decency and permanency in land use.

Methods of securing revenues from land should be such as to promote both liberty and security. We have taxed land in the United States in such a way as to discourage both. We may find that the good life can be aided by applying some of the thoughts of Henry George, who wished to encourage enterprise by tax-free improvements and by enabling the community, rather than the individual, to benefit from any increments in value. We need to recognize to the full that land is a special kind of property, even though it may be bought and sold.

Nature's Cycles

Renewal of the land can in many instances be accomplished by simple adaptations to the cycles of nature. Here, again, commercialization is largely, or wholly, unnecessary. If exploitation has not already gone too far, the friends of the soil need only follow the simple and natural processes that were in operation before man began his extensive commercial ventures on this continent.

Ways of controlling and stabilizing the values of land must be found. The prices must not rise too high nor fall too low. Unrestrained competition might bring both, and might spell ruin. There are times when urban people should be prevented from driving up farm land values, through purchases which are designed to round out urban investment portfolios. Social control over men's rights to buy and sell land for easy profits is necessary for the general welfare.

The people who call out the bounty of the earth have a claim upon all society for a just share of the national income. The "doctrine of the just price" must be revived and taught and applied. Since farm people contribute not only food and fiber, but also good men and women, to other communities everywhere, to all other walks of life, and to government itself, it will be well if the leaders of the modern state take thought and do whatever is necessary to keep the rural springs of its life flowing well. A healthy agrarianism is a necessary ingredient of the good society.

Victors

When this war's food history is written, much credit for improved diets will justly go to the families in town and country for the hard work, good grace, and firm determination with which they turned to and produced more of their own food and conserved food values. . . . Thus they helped change what might have been a serious drop in the nutritive quality of family meals into an upward trend.

—Hazel K. Stiebeling

LAND AND WATER POLICY *for Central Valley*

By MARION CLAWSON. *Here, involved in a far-sighted development project, is another striking instance in which best results will come when Government and the citizens work together.*

IN THE great Central Valley of California the Federal Government is constructing a vast multiple-purpose project, designed to improve navigation, provide protection from floods, irrigate lands now unirrigated or now lacking a dependable water supply, and generate large amounts of electric power. Conceived and initiated as a huge river-improvement project, it will have special significance in the post-war years. Opportunities for settlement on the land will be provided to veterans and war workers, and low-cost hydroelectric power can be the basis of enlarged industrial employment.

The Central Valley has been intensively studied for more than 20 years, first by State and later by Federal agencies. The Sacramento Valley, in the north, contains only one-third of the potential farm land, but two-thirds of the water supply originates there. The San Joaquin Valley, in the south, contains two-thirds of the potential farm land but has only one-third of the water supply.

The major plan of the project comes out of this basic unbalance of water and land. By a series of dams and canals, water originating within the Sacramento Valley will be made available to the San Joaquin Valley. At the same time, destructive floods will be restrained, navigation will be made possible, and hydroelectric power will be generated by the water stored behind the dams.

California adopted a State Water Plan in 1931, and in 1933 created a State Water Project Authority which was authorized to construct the Central Valley project. Because of the difficulty of obtaining funds, the idea of a State project was given up and a Federal project was sought instead. Approved by President Roosevelt as an emergency project in 1935, it received Congressional approval in 1937. Friant Dam and the Contra Costa canal are now virtually complete; Shasta Dam, Keswick Dam, and the Madera Canal are nearing completion; the Delta-Cross Channel, Delta-Mendota Canal, and Friant-Kern Canal are not yet started.

When complete, these features will provide a dependable water supply to approximately 1,550,000 acres which now lack such a supply, and will bring water to about 550,000 additional acres not previously under irrigation.

All land irrigable under this project has been in private ownership for

many years; the land now irrigated but lacking a dependable water supply is in operating farms. Several difficult problems arise out of these facts. The Federal Government can make water available in any area, and can specify the terms on which it will be provided subject to State laws and established water rights. But the landowner is under no compulsion to take this water; he may refuse to do so, at least upon the terms under which it is offered. He may prefer to use his land for grazing, or for dry-land grain production, or may prefer to depend on a shrinking water supply rather than pay the costs of an enlarged and dependable supply from the Federal project.

Much of the land in this area was obtained in questionable ways, and the charge of fraud has often been raised. Nevertheless, these landowners have legally sanctioned titles, and will utilize the water supply only as far as their self-interest leads them to do so. Their self-interest may not coincide with the general public interest, but their property rights must be respected.

Originally

The historic American land policy is to favor relatively small farms operated by working farmers. Emphasis has been on the actual settler, and opposition has been expressed to the landed gentry and the absentee landlord. These broad policies found expression in the original Reclamation Act of 1902. Its sponsors stressed its home-building objective. They wanted to develop sound, stable communities. The acreage for which one landowner could obtain water was limited to 160 acres. The original act contemplated the irrigation of both private and public lands, and contemplated irrigation of previously unirrigated lands as well as provision of dependable water to irrigated lands lacking such a supply.

The act has been amended several times. The principle of family farms and limitation of acreage has been retained in every amendment, and strengthened in numerous respects, including provisions to prevent speculation in land.

Under present law, land must be sold at fair, appraised prices. Settlers are protected against land monopolists and speculators. The means taken to enforce the provisions have varied, but the objective has remained unchanged. On three projects, special legislation waived the acreage limitations when it seemed that results would not warrant the trouble of enforcement. On the other 70-odd projects the limitation has been retained. This has brought a pattern of diffused land ownership on the Federal reclamation projects, with far less concentration of ownership than in similar non-Federal irrigation projects.

New Puzzles

Application of these historic national policies to the Central Valley raises special problems. Much of the irrigation is carried on by pumping from deep wells. The underground water supply has been depleted by withdrawals exceeding the natural recharge of the underground supply. Each landowner, under California law, has a right to pump as much water as necessary to irrigate his land. No restrictions can be placed on his use of water, as

long as it is used upon his own land.

The new project will be operated to replenish this underground supply, by putting water to the spreading grounds from which it can percolate to underground reservoirs. When this water gets underground, it moves slowly to the center and along the main axis of the valley. Water placed under one man's land may move under someone else's land, and become available to him. It is impossible to exercise complete physical control over this underground water, although its movement follows fairly well-defined channels. Under present California law, legal control cannot be exercised over withdrawal of this water, *once it has reached the underground supply*. Unless some means can be found to regulate its use, overdraft of the underground supply may continue and be intensified.

Costs

Another problem relates to the price at which water will be sold to private landowners. Federal reclamation is not on a profit basis; irrigation water is provided to the farmers at cost. These costs consist of (1) an operation and maintenance charge—"O+M"—which will continue indefinitely, and (2) a construction charge which is repaid over a period of years—usually 40. Only part of the total project cost can fairly be charged to irrigation. The cost of electrical installations is chargeable to electric power generation and the cost of river levees to flood control. But many costs are truly "joint"—equally necessary for all project purposes. Cost allocation is a difficult and tricky business, and decisions must often be arbitrary. Yet the construction charge that water users must pay depends on this allocation.

Unique

This problem is not unique. It is found on every irrigation project where services other than supplying irrigation water are provided. What is unique is the relation of this problem to the underground supply. If water placed under one man's land becomes available to someone else, how is the second user going to be forced to pay his share of the costs? May he not refuse to pay any charges that may be levied, knowing that physical control of the underground water is impossible and that no legal restraint can be invoked against his use of water underlying his land?

Acreage limitation and the anti-speculation features of reclamation law sharpen these problems. If large landowners can obtain underground water without restraint and without payment, they will retain their extensive holdings intact or they will sell land at speculative prices. In either event, they will have gained great private profits from the expenditure of public funds. The public purpose of the project will have been lost, and the benefits siphoned off to enrich a relatively few persons.

Answers

How are these intricate problems to be solved? Is there any solution? The answer lies in the use of the contract, as a social instrument. On its side, the Federal Government offers to supply irrigation water on certain terms which include com-

pliance with acreage limitations and anti-speculation provisions of reclamation law; this water is valuable to those who need it. On their side, the landowners possess land without which the irrigation water is valueless. Each party to the contract possesses something that, in combination with the possession of the other, is much more valuable than when standing by itself.

This is an intriguing bargaining position. In some ways, the Federal Government occupies a superior position: there is more irrigable land than can be irrigated with any readily developed water supply. If a private monopolist controlled this water, he could wring many competitive advantages from his superior bargaining position. The Government, with its tradition of irrigation development at cost and with its responsiveness to public viewpoints, could not well follow such a course. But it can protect the public interest by proper use of this bargaining strength.

How about the landowner who hopes to get a "free ride" on the underground water moving under his land from some distant water-spreading grounds? He probably cannot be refused water once it has reached the supply under his land. The answer is, The water should not be placed in the underground reservoirs until all the beneficiaries have agreed to repayment, to acreage limitation, and to speculation control.

Water management must be on an area basis. Under the natural conditions which dominate the Central Valley, it is impossible to give single landowners the option of taking or refusing project water. If any water is made available to a particular area all landowners will benefit to a generally similar extent. Some of them cannot refuse to participate, because they will benefit by the rise in water table. On the other hand, water cannot be made available to only a few. All owners in each area must act to obtain or refuse water as a group.

When it is clear that benefits are obtainable only by compliance with the law, landowners will agree to these terms. As a condition to receiving water the owner may be required to restrict his use; by voluntary agreement, he agrees to what he cannot be compelled to do. Restriction to conform with available supply is clearly in the interest of water users, if it is equitably applied.

Negotiation

Thus, by negotiation and agreement among the parties concerned, both private and public interests are safeguarded. By voluntary agreement the Government and the landowners devise a program in which each benefits.

Agreements of this type require skill on the part of the administrative agency. This agency must be given large discretionary authority, because it is likely to meet problems which no legislative directive could fully anticipate. In the exercise of this discretion, the agency assumes a heavy responsibility to protect the public interest. In the negotiations with private groups it may be subjected to severe pressures, and plausible excuses are often found for actions that would turn out to have undesirable consequences. Keen perception, clear judgment, and steadfast purpose are required, to an unusual degree, of these public servants.

Rural Youth and DEMOCRATIC BUILDING

By E. L. KIRKPATRICK. *Realizing that the longer post-war building must be done mainly by those who are now very young, we asked a man who has been working with rural youth leadership for several years whether rural young people are thinking and talking about the future in relation to the land and country living.*

WHEN THE WAR is over hundreds of thousands of young people will be returning to our rural communities. There, they will meet hundreds of thousands of new young folks who have reached youth's estate in a period of unrest and uncertainty although they were only early teen-agers when their brothers and sisters left for war or the work of war. Each group of young people must adjust to the other and to the adults of the community.

Many will want to take up farming. Others will prefer trade, or service. Some will be satisfied with just jobs in the country. Many may want to continue their schooling. Wherever they are and whatever they do for a living, each should have a chance at the best his community has to offer, to be a full participant—a partner with others—in his local unit of our democratic society.

In what ways can his community help each boy and girl, each young man and young woman, to live and to work with others? What can he and the others do in cooperation with their elders? What sort of programs will these young people want? How can they go about having a more satisfying life for all?

Young people talk and think and frequently do something about their own situations. What they do may depend on suggestions they get from others, including their elders, to which they usually respond with pretty straight thinking and then with intelligent action if they have the right kind of encouragement.

After this country was in the war several national agencies tried to find out what the young people were thinking and talking about and wanting to do, by communities. Meetings were held at Iowa State College, at Furman University in South Carolina, and at the New Jersey State College. These meetings were made possible through the American Country Life Association (Youth Section), the American Youth Commission (Rural Project), and the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace (Division of Intercourse and Education), in cooperation with the colleges where the conferences were held and the organizations that helped to send the

delegates. Each meeting was attended by 30 to 60 young people representing local groups in different communities.

Informally these young people reported briefly and discussed freely the things that were being asked about in their localities, and the things they could be doing to improve their situations.

Spotlight

The effect on immediate personal decisions of efforts in winning the war was basic to the discussions. But attention was paid to winning the peace, including things that might be done toward building the right kind of future. They turned the spotlight first on the home community and then outward, using the standpoint of "more democratic living to win the war and help reconstruct the world to keep the peace."

Jobs, marriage, schooling, and responsibilities to the community readily came to the fore. Far more questions were raised than were answered. A few are outlined here to indicate how our rural young people are thinking.

Work

"Many of us have never had jobs," the young people said, "and the uncertainties of war make it hard to plan for the future. Most of us live on farms—won't we want to look there for our first opportunity?" But the efficient methods developed to supply food for the armed forces and for other countries will not make for farm openings after the war, they realized. The family-size farm, the ideal to most of us, they said, may be hard pressed by large-scale commercial operations. So, perhaps more emphasis must go to "love of the land" as a motive in lining up the right young people for farming and country living.

One young man now in the service writes: "I've been thinking about the philosophy of Plowman's Folly and would like to see the young people back home discuss man's relation to the land. I don't know just how to put it but the idea is 'as the land goes so goes the people.' Realistic economics in the long run affects both the land and the people. I never got much of it in school or college, for emphasis was mostly on the money side of farming.

"We sort of touched on the idea each year in our youth conferences but never attacked it full-scale. There is so much besides money to think of if one directs his thinking toward real goals in rural living. This is youth's challenge, as peace comes—to look at farming first from the angles of love of the land and social values in rural living; only then from the standpoint of the money there is in it."

Marriage

Marriage is perhaps the most serious and far-reaching choice one makes in life, the young people concluded. It changes a person's relation to himself, to his mate, to his parental family, and to his social and economic surroundings. Before making a choice don't young folks need to know as many persons as possible and as well as possible, in their communities? Isn't companionship in working for and enjoying the same things essential to happy married life? Is not real compan-

ionship most likely to come from working with others?

What marriage costs in dollars and cents is also to be considered, they believed. The average annual income in the United States is around $1,500. A farmer, producing much of his own food, usually has less than $1,000 a year. So a budget plan made out beforehand will help give balance among the things considered essential in family living.

Are not personality adjustments the key to the solution of most of the problems between husband and wife, they asked. Only harmony gives a working basis on which to build a satisfactory married life. For a harmonious life, what is the proper balance within and outside the home for a wife and mother? How closely are farming and a love for the land bound up with an intimate home life or a relatively large family? How can those of us who hurry into marriage because of the war start real homes when peace comes?

Schooling

What sort of education will be most useful to us and equally worth while in the future? Everyone can get vocational training now if they want it, for the Government helped to provide defense courses and is making such plans for the returning service men. But how many of us will be satisfied with the kind of work we will be prepared for after the war? Is vocational training our greatest need in finding our place in life? Or, should our schools be giving more attention to a liberal education for all regardless of financial standing?

"Our schools are still pretty textbookish. A lot of education is too far removed from what and where we live. Then there isn't enough of the creative arts in it, or recreational possibilities, hobbies, music. Don't the schools make it rather hard to keep the right people in agriculture, because text books and movies frequently present the farmer as a 'hick?' Don't the school texts usually show progress as something that is associated with cities?"

Community

"To make democracy really work every one of us must contribute right where we are. We must have cooperation in the home, the school, the whole community, if we expect to share in international trade and in common ideals of living. We can develop our abilities by being active members in local organizations. Communities are beginning to realize that we young people can make a contribution; by accepting places on committees, councils, and boards, we get good experience."

Shouldn't we ask ourselves such questions as: How much do we know about our Government? How can we have a greater part in it? What is expected of each citizen? If we are not satisfied with our democracy what can we do about it? What can young people do to make rural life more democratic and challenging?

The Way?

These questions rural young people are thinking about and asking, indicate readiness on their part to think and talk and plan and do, in their communities. What guidance,

suggestions, and encouragement can they have from adults who are concerned about the maximum contributions young folks can make to our democratic way of living? From those who realize that the far future is partly in their hands?

The ever-present perplexing questions for rural young people are: Is my place on the farm? What part should I take in the affairs of my community? These, too, are the principal ones to which the Rural Project of the American Youth Commission, cooperating with different agencies at National, State and local levels, gave attention for 5 years just preceding and during the first 2 years of the war. Georgia, Virginia, Ohio, Michigan, and Iowa were chosen as fields for demonstrating some things that might be done to help young people to help themselves. Recreation, discussion, informal education, vocational training, citizenship, home life, all received attention. Local programs, county meetings, district and State conferences, and informal training institutes stimulated interest, increased participation, and helped to prepare young people for leadership.

By States, from one to almost a score of communities cooperated. Some illustrations are suggestive. In Georgia the initiative was taken and the plans were evolved and carried out by students of the university and several colleges who gained experience and confidence in State conferences and leadership-training institutes. During summer months 15 of these students worked through extension agents, high-school teachers, F. S. A. directors, and church leaders with youth of different committees.

In Michigan, the State Employment Service, Vocational Education Department, National Youth Administration, Colleges of Education, and other agencies helped rural young people of five counties to define some of their needs and consider with their elders effective ways of meeting them.

Young folks in four Virginia counties were assisted with program plans and activity for a week by young leaders from Georgia. High-school students were met at assembly and recess periods in the daytime and the young people who were out of school were reached through evening meetings.

Pointers

The story of the efforts and accomplishments by communities is found in *Rural Youth in Action* by David Cushman Coyle, issued by the American Council on Education. Their experiences provide a few brief generalizations, here given as a basis for rural communities who are thinking of their young people.

(1) Find out how many young people are in the community; leaders sometimes say there are none, thinking in terms of their own organizations.

(2) Give them a place in community activities—separate programs if and as they want them—but always providing them a good chance to take responsibilities for things that need doing.

(3) Give them access to facilities—meeting places, school buildings, and the like; this may mean supervision or oversight but they will assume considerable responsibility.

(4) Give guidance, counsel, and encouragement; most of them welcome understanding adult sponsorship.

(5) Help them to train their own leaders—do it with them, not for them.

(6) Extend the outreach of present organizations and activities and organize new ones only if necessary.

(7) Help them to get started on farms if they want to, and if they are suited. One young man explained: "On our farm everything was O. K. I had my pigs and my calves. They drew prizes and took me to college. But Dad and I never talked about who would succeed him on the farm until one day he realized he was too old to go on. Then I was in another job that I couldn't well leave."

(8) Point out the significance of building and conserving the land resources. Give them the chance to plan and do what seems to them important on a given farm and in the home community. Help them to develop a love for country living.

(9) Start where young people are If they want recreation only—"no more schooling now"—start with recreation; from group games move to talking over kinds of recreation that the community most needs which work into informal education and larger community programs.

(10) Invite the young people to help find out the community's needs and to suggest what they think can be done to meet them.

These experiences reported here with youth conferences and other activities are not the final answers. They are suggestive of what can be done with young people. They may encourage more work with programs that appeal to youth for these are they who will build a better rural life. Only by exploring and experimenting can we find the best means for developing the young people who love the land and who want to realize the value of democratic living in the community.

To Wehrwein *1883–1945*

Let him rejoin his prized earth.
Ardent, generous, intensely animate—
Whoever passed him, spare and slightly bent,
With scholar's gracious benison was sent . . .
Teacher, reformer, lover of the state,
Your passing inspires re-birth
Of gentler feelings, reverence and pride
In one whose purpose easier ways defied.
For effort valiant, courage put to test,
Receive life's last and tenderest requiem of rest.

—Eva K. Marks

Books

RAILROAD TRANSIT PRIVILEGES. By *REGINALD V. HOBBAH.* In the Journal of Business of the University of Chicago, v. 17, No. 3, July 1944, Part 2. University of Chicago Press. Chicago, Ill. 103 pages.

TRANSIT PRIVILEGE is defined by this author as meaning to stop a shipment at a point between origin and destination for some purpose incidental to manufacture or trade and reship it to its destination on the basis of the through rate. He refers to the most common method of assessing the rates, which is to charge the rate into the transit station, leaving the balance of the through rate to be collected later when reshipment from the transit station occurs.

It does credit to the author that he has succeeded so well in organizing the materials from which his conclusions were to be drawn. In contrast, the logical development of the conclusions seems questionable. The discussion conveys no impression of a deep insight into the general practice and theory of freight rate-making, without which it is difficult to appraise transit rates and practices in their relation to the whole scheme of traffic rates and practices. Therefore, it is not surprising that he singles out transit to condemn it in part—though not as a whole—for violating principles that are not inherent in the whole scheme of railroad freight rates.

For example in writing of iron and steel articles the author says, "One effect of the fabrication-in-transit privilege is its impact on the policy of fabricators in their selection of vendors and on the functioning of the multiple basing point price system. . . . This situation tends to disrupt the price stability that generally is believed to prevail in the steel industry under the basing point system. The nearby vendor has little choice but to make some concession to meet the terms of the distant competitor. From the standpoint of price policy, the social value of these results is debatable, depending on one's point of view; but it is clear that the incentive to unnecessarily long hauls and cross-hauls of iron and steel articles implied in the situation can hardly be justified."

THE MAIN IDEA to be introduced by the review is that carriers incur more expense, largely owing to the terminal services at transit stations, in handling transit shipments than in handling through shipments the same distance over the same part of a given line. By charging the same for the unequally expensive services, carriers make it possible for places along the route to compete with the origin and destination places, or with places on the route known as "rate-break" points because through rates and combination rates via such points are equal, dispensing with the need for transit privileges there. The same princi-

ple of rate equality regardless of expense difference is involved where, also on account of competition, carriers via long and high-cost routes meet the rates of carriers via short and low-cost routes.

TO QUESTION the equalization of rates regardless of differences in expense involved in these traffic situations or in many others that illustrate the same principles is to question the economic and social value of competition. Substantially, limiting the question mainly to the fabrication of steel in transit is what the author does when he refers to the tendency of such transit "to disrupt the price stability that generally is believed to prevail in the steel industry under the basing-point system."

Unconvincing to this reviewer is the effort to distinguish between freight commodities depending on transit privileges, basing the distinction on "considerations which are the outgrowth of vested interests which, in some instances, merge with the public interest and, in other instances, run counter to the public interest." Therefore, it is difficult to accept the author's assurance that the distinction he has in mind precludes any reasonable possibility of eliminating transit on such commodities as grain and grain products, cotton, and lumber, but not in the fabrication of steel. Is it not likely that the trend of rate regulation in recent years in the direction of cost differences as a basis for rate differences, if continued, will affect similarly all the rates under which transit privileges are allowed?

—*G. L. Tillery*

DEEP DELTA COUNTRY. By *HARNETT T. KANE.* Duell, Sloan, and Pearce. New York. 283 pages. (American Folkways, edited by Erskine Caldwell.) Bibliography.

HARNETT KANE, the self-appointed evangelist of the Evangeline country, has written another book as interesting and entertaining as his *Bayous of Louisiana* published a year or so ago and reviewed in this magazine. Whereas that was a glorified guide to the territory between New Orleans and the Gulf of Mexico where "the soil is strung along the river like tattered bits of cloth hanging from a double line," his latest is, essentially, a history book.

Drawing on a background rich in folklore, anecdotes, and colorful detail, on the hydraulics and physics of the Father of Waters, and on files of historical quarterlies and engineering reports, the author records the way the dominant Mississippi River, the land, the crops—chiefly rice and sugarcane—great industries, great plantations, and little towns have come and gone through the years as land and water have changed. With the warmth and depth that the subject deserves, he manages to instill in his readers an appreciation of both past and present events, places, and people, in a setting unique in terrain and growing things which he terms "paradise incomplete."

'Tis said that the soil in the deep Delta is the richest that the world knows, for it is built bit by bit from silt, from weed fragments, and from mineral remains, all deposited there, especially in flood stage, by the "erratic, vacillating Mississippi River."

On the thin strips of land which have the appearance of floating, so encircled are they by water, nature is "frantic in its exuberance." Nowadays truck gardens pour forth an enormous yield, a crop every 3 months. Everything grows flamboyantly, insistently. There is an abundance of fish and game; there are thick oyster reefs and heavy concentrations of shrimp; deer, turtles, furred animals; alligators and great flocks of birds.

Yet, in the midst of plenty, life for most of the humans is now and has always been a struggle. Changes in land and water initiate a succession of adjustments. The region has served as a melting pot for many races and peoples, chiefly of French extraction.

"IN A REGION born of conflict, surrounded by uncertainties, the Deltans have fitted themselves to the rhythms of their background. They have battled the elements and sometimes other men for survival; their ways have tended to harden with their muscles. Here and there, in the farthest reaches, they take on something of the sadness of their lonely grasses and waters. Like the land on which they live, they alternate violence with placidity. They enjoy long periods of rest in the shadows, followed by bursts of sharp excitement; and when they are stirred, they become a furiously positive people, with a gift for uproaring action. Since they are largely Latins, they possess also a capacity for release in gaiety . . ."

It is perhaps in characterizing the Delta people—with their differences and their likenesses—that Kane best vitalizes this strange land for his readers.

"Fatalists, they reconcile themselves to what the seasons will bring, bowing their wills to the river, or the winds, or the changes in the water table. Life can be hard, yes; but a man cannot always count his sorrows. He will go to the store at the levee to 'pass a good time.' He will play cards with his friends and he will cry a bit into his strong orange wine. In the morning he will rise to the first honk of wild geese over the lakes, he will sniff the brisk air, and, damn it, he will tell his son, but this will be a fine day for a hunt! Le's go."

It is customary to think of the Delta in connection with troubles—disastrous floods, irregularities of many kinds, and flaring violences—and to wonder at a world in which cats learn to swim, cattle are taken to pasture by boat, and the ultimate in compliments is for one man to say to another, "He don' let the river slip anything pas' him!"

Those who don't get better acquainted with the Delta are missing something.

—*Mildred Benton*

"The trend of civilization itself is forever upward. . . ."

WINTER WHEAT IN THE GOLDEN BELT OF KANSAS. A STUDY IN ADAPTATION TO SUBHUMID GEOGRAPHICAL ENVIRONMENT. By *JAMES C. MALIN*. University of Kansas Press. Lawrence, Kans. 290 pages.

IT IS UNUSUAL to find a book on the subject of wheat written by a history professor. That alone is enough to make the least curious want to examine it. Once you've started reading, the unique plan the author follows in telling his story and the refreshing variety in the quotations from newspapers of the last half of the nineteenth century hold the interest from the beginning to the philosophical epilogue.

Professor Malin uses the "sample" method to picture the development of the wheat industry in Kansas. Riley, Geary, Dickinson, and Saline Counties, in the watershed of the Kansas River and its tributaries, represent the area in the historical study from the earliest printed records to 1900 when it was no longer a separate locality in the old sense. Wheat production is reported as early as 1839 when the Shawnee Methodist Mission grew 100 acres. The introduction of the hard red winter wheat from Russia in 1874 is credited to the Mennonites although others did most of the work of developing it.

It is brought out rather clearly that the early statistics on yields are considerably colored—the high acre yields reported drew eastern farmers to Kansas. No wonder our plant breeders have difficulty in getting their high-producing, disease-resistant varieties to equal the reported yields of those early plantings of unadapted wheat!

Of particular interest in this day of "Plowman's Folly" is a statement made before the Kansas State Board of Agriculture in 1893: "We should have some instrument by which we can loosen the ground up deep, but not turn the stubble under." Illustrations show "mold-boardless" plows that were patented in the nineties. Such machines were in commercial production in 1898 in Kansas. The disk plow was used in the late nineties. Professor Malin's research offers a lesson to embryo authors who wish to startle the world with ideas that were tried and discarded many years ago.

This account of problems in the development of the great wheat industry is also a story of real human interest. The need for construction materials for homes and other buildings, lack of fuel and machinery, inadequate transportation, no markets, and no reserves of cash and supplies to carry through the lean years, brought heavy mortality. Only 43 percent of those who had been farming in Saline and Dickinson Counties 5 years before remained in 1870. Floods, droughts, blizzards, pests, dust storms caused the exodus.

In the epilogue, the author suggests the need for soil-conserving measures, and points out advantages that might accrue from using the "perennial wheat" of Russia. His philosophical comments relative to the individual, commercial organizations, and governmental bureaucracy are worthy of serious consideration. All in all, the book is an historical document of genuine human interest to those who like to know about the development of our country.

—*C. R. Enlow*

THE VALLEY AND ITS PEOPLE: A PORTRAIT OF TVA. Text by *R. L. DUFFUS.* Illustrations by the Graphics Department of the Tennessee Valley Authority, Charles Krutch, Chief. Alfred A. Knopf. New York.

THIS IS a simple story of the Tennessee Valley and its people and of what they have accomplished since TVA.

Such books are welcome indeed. Considering its size, accomplishments, and significance to all people, surprisingly little has been written about TVA. Within the Valley people know it and understand it, because they are part of it. But people outside have learned most from newspaper accounts of spectacular court battles and debates in the Congress. The great multitude of sober jobs and quiet things, that add up to TVA is not well known.

Perhaps the reluctance of the Authority to publicize itself is part of the whole experiment: how far can a great public enterprise develop without continually tooting its own horn?

Duffus gives a good picture of the vast accomplishments—of the dams, and of their significance to industry and navigation, to farms and homes, to flood control and conservation, and to this war.

The agricultural side of TVA, with its profound significance to farmers everywhere as an example of what can be done, is brought out more clearly in this book than in most. Although less dramatic than huge dams and generators, the results can be of even greater significance.

The author explains how TVA works with other groups rather than duplicating the functions of private industry or of other public agencies.

"No other policy could have worked well in the Valley—and this is possibly a way of saying that no other policy will permanently work well in any part of America. The Valley people were, and are proud. They had rather be poor than dependent. The essence of TVA, from their point of view, was that it opened up to them the road to independence."

The author might have explained more clearly the administrative mechanism of TVA, as new as the shining generators at Douglas Dam. Unless one understands how responsibility is *really* shared with local institutions and groups, he will not see what makes TVA tick. He might assume it was large funds or grants of power, and miss completely the vital force without which there would be nothing of lasting importance—

"This whole apparatus of dams, powerhouses, power lines, laboratories, experimental plants, factories, improved farm implements, terraced lands, young trees set out on eroded slopes—all this, while it remains and functions, is an implement with which either good or evil can be accomplished. . . . (A dictator) could build dams, harness the river's power, improve it for navigation, enrich the soil, create productive industries. The inland lakes would mirror hate and fear, but the generators would turn just as smoothly. . . . Or let us merely picture the Tennessee Valley as a setting for monopolized industry, with its farm lands, made rich by improved phosphates, held in large corporate tracts and tilled by landless men."

The book is attractively made. Both type and pictures—over 100 of these do much of the telling—are large and clear. The whole is printed in photogravure. Most adults will enjoy the book (although cynics won't understand it). Especially will it appeal to those high school boys and girls who dream of doing important things in an even better America, one still more productive, more just, and more democratic.

—*Charles E. Kellogg*

THE PRODUCTION CREDIT SYSTEM FOR FARMERS. By *EARL L. BUTZ*. The Brookings Institution. Washington, D. C. 104 pages.

THE PRODUCTION credit system, under the Farm Credit Administration, has been praised as a great improvement in rural credit facilities and criticized because of its use of subsidy in competition with commercial banks. Issues involved in the subsidy question are complex and there has been much confusion of facts and ideas. Dr. Butz, in an impartial and objective manner, has done much to clarify the issues and reach the heart of the problem.

A factual background outlining the growth and current position of the production credit associations is given in his book along with an exceptionally good picture and analysis of their operations—loan volume, earnings, loan fees, interest rates, and losses. The author points out faults such as the tendency of some associations to "live up" their income, including that derived from Government-owned capital. On the other hand, the good job done by the system in providing short-term credit tailored for qualified farmers at moderate costs in all areas is shown.

The need of Government capital for supplementing income as well as providing collateral necessary for obtaining loan funds from the intermediate credit banks is appraised and the growing investment of farmer borrowers in their associations is discussed. Reference is made to the growth of substantial reserves in many associations and to progress toward self-support. Dr. Butz says that, despite this situation, 115 million dollars in Government capital is still retained—mainly because no incentive has been provided for its repayment. The Federal subsidy, he believes, was justified to get the system started and the competitive effect is not so serious as sometimes alleged. "The real threat to commercial banking inherent in the subsidy is not so much the amount of the past or present subsidy, but the philosophy underlying continuous subsidy and the genuine danger that it may be extended to the point where both private and cooperative credit institutions will be forced out of the farm lending field . . ."

Dr. Butz makes a definite proposal for eventually retiring most or all of the Government capital now in the hands of production credit associations. His suggestions include (1) placing the associations on a business-like basis by permitting them to vary their fees and interest rates between high- and low-cost areas, (2) returning all Government capital except that required for discount privileges with the intermediate credit banks, and (3) paying interest on all Government capital retained. Numerous questions as to the ultimate effect of these proposals remain unanswered, but they merit thoughtful consideration.

As shown by the author, the sound arguments on this controversial subject have not been all on one side. Both critics and supporters of the system at times have been justified in their contentions. Dr. Butz shows the need to consider the problem as it affects agriculture as a whole and the public at large.

—*Lawrence A. Jones*

I Lived With Latin Americans. By *JOHN L. STROHM.* Interstate Printers and Publishers. Danville, Illinois. 377 pages.

LATIN AMERICA has 19 percent of the world's land, but only 6 percent of the people. A Honduras general is quoted in this book as saying "what we need is United States capital and technical advisers to help us build healthful, productive communities which will be of more value to the United States than our present ones." One small nation is said to have an annual national budget of $2,500,000—only one-seventh as much as Rhode Island spends. These small nations, the author adds, do not have the money to build roads and promote education, health, and public-welfare programs.

A zest for travel and for talking with farm people on farms distinguishes Mr. Strohm's work—he is managing editor of *The Prairie Farmer.* Sympathetic reportorial writing is reinforced and vivified here by 176 photographs. He finds it necessary, after visiting shaded plazas, magnificent cathedrals, and cocktail bars in the capital cities, to go well beyond. Recently he talked with the peon as well as the president, gathered rubber in the Amazon, rode horses on the pampas, picked coffee in Colombia, and followed a llama train in the high Andes. He traveled 7,000 miles in Latin America by auto, train, oxcart, and donkey. His are vivid impressions.

The man in the field he found illiterate, landless, and sometimes ruled by a dictator, but "he is in the majority and, therefore, the most important man in Latin America." Until he has schooling, democracy cannot succeed, the author believes, and until he learns scientific methods of farming the nation dependent on its soil cannot prosper.

Central American republics have tried a dozen times to do business as a federation, but each effort was wrecked, it is pointed out, on the rocks of jealousy. A chapter is devoted to each of the 20 Latin republics and each includes a brief summary of primary facts, descriptive and statistical.

On all sides, in all Latin American countries, the author heard that Latin American feeling toward us is better than it has ever been, and that the Good Neighbor policy has paid handsome dividends to a United States at war. These dividends are in terms of both raw materials that they have sent to us and in their friendly attitude during troubled times.

When traveling in five continents and 50 countries, the author was "constantly amazed at how courteous and good-natured people are all over the world." Citizens of his own country are exhorted "to remove the stigma from 'foreigner' and get along with our neighbors."

—*DeWitt C. Wing*

It is more dangerous to stop the mouth of the people than to dam the mouth of a river. —*Chinese proverb*

Earth

We must carry with us an awareness of the perishability of this land, and learn to serve, rather than pillage, it. For nature has created her own rhythm, in which all forces are interconnected. And we have broken that rhythm. Our accelerated time sense wars with the time sense of the ages, and we have set a standard for production from the land that upsets the balance of nature. In our avarice we have removed forests and plowed up grasslands, confident that we were the masters. We did not know that the Nemesis of flood and soil erosion stood waiting. Over the South, gullies scar the land that once stood white with cotton. Out in Nebraska, the dust has blown from the earth, carrying all goodness with it. Upon the rangeland, the sheep and cattle clip the pastures clean, and the grass perishes. The people who work the land have been betrayed by their own misuse. They have been betrayed by the misuse of forebears, who in a new world, where land held no frontiers, felt no need to rebuild exhausted soil. These descendants of the pioneers walk their fields today with pinched faces and hopeless spirits. For the roots of their stability and plenty have withered beneath them. Their earth refuses to bear. Upon the same spot on this earth stands the cabin of their fathers; the same sky is above them; they are surrounded by the same wind and sun and rain. Everything remains except the one most vital element; the life-giving topsoil has been stripped from their land and lies, perhaps, out at sea beyond New Orleans, where it has been carried by the Father of Waters, in flood.

—Clare Leighton, *in Give Us This Day,*
Reynal & Hitchcock

THE INDEX to Volume VII of the Land Policy Review will be mailed upon request made to the Bureau of Agricultural Economics. Also available upon request are copies of the Indexes for Volumes III, IV, V, and VI.

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We Americans of today, together with our Allies, are passing through a period of supreme test. It is a test of our courage—of our resolve—of our wisdom—of our essential decency.
If we meet that test—successfully and honorably—we shall perform a service of historic importance which men and women and children will honor throughout all time.

—Franklin D. Roosevelt
From his fourth inaugural address

Land policy REVIEW

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UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE
BUREAU OF AGRICULTURAL ECONOMICS

Contributors

Editorial Note: OUR SUMMER NUMBER carries its readers into the forests, on to Alaska, and to other far countries and most of the other articles are shorter than usual for hot-weather perusal. But we cannot escape the problems if we would, so they too find place throughout these pages.

LEON S. MINCKLER, silviculturist in the Forest Service, is located at the Appalachian Forest Experiment Station, Asheville, N. C. The Forest Service celebrates its 40th anniversary this year by looking ahead as well as reviewing past years.

STANLEY L. BALLOUN sent this article from the Fairbanks Experiment Station in Alaska where he was animal husbandman in charge, but he is now transferring to the Matanuska Experiment Station at Palmer.

W. A. WHEELER, Chief of Seed Planning Group, Office of Supply, CCC, WFA, has had charge of the vegetable-seed supply and procurement programs since their inception and has charge of Lend-Lease purchases of both vegetable and field seeds.

DONALD C. HORTON, agricultural economist in BAE, has charge of farm-mortgage credit studies.

PAUL A. EKE, Head of the Department of Agricultural Economics, University of Idaho, started on this plan when helping his farmer-janitor to figure on retirement.

HUGH HAMMOND BENNETT is the well-known chief of the Soil Conservation Service.

CHARLES E. GAGE, fisherman philosopher, is Chief, Tobacco Branch, Office of Marketing Services, WFA.

ELIZABETH R. HOOKER is author of the book *Readjustments of Agricultural Tenure in Ireland* and other studies of land and people.

ERIC ENGLUND, Chief, Regional Investigations Branch, and MONTELL OGDON, in charge Foreign Trade Policies and Programs Section, are in Office of Foreign Agricultural Relations; CLARA BAILEY is editor of EXTENSION SERVICE REVIEW, and HELEN W. ATWATER, who comes from the Town Meeting Country, was formerly editor of JOURNAL OF HOME ECONOMICS; HAROLD HEDGES is Acting Chief, Cooperative Research and Service Division, FCA; O. V. WELLS is program analyst in BAE with some surprising hobbies.

LAND · POLICY · REVIEW

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Reforestation in Land Use: GOVERNING PRINCIPLES

By LEON S. MINCKLER. *Apparently this is about the first time that just this kind of material has been brought together with major emphasis on land use. It makes a forward-looking but practical article that will have value for a long time to come.*

THE AMOUNT of idle land in this country is not known with certainty. But no one denies that there is a large acreage of land of latent value now virtually unused and other large tracts of marginal and submarginal land still under cultivation. Furthermore, there is now general agreement that the existing soil-site conditions impose definite limitations on types of land use that are suitable to a given area.

Estimates of our potentially productive land are found here and there. The so-called Copeland Report, *A National Plan for American Forestry,* issued as a Senate document in 1933, mentions 135 million acres. Allied estimates are interesting—the National Resources Planning Board, for instance, proposed a forest-planting program to cover 32 million acres, mostly east of the Mississippi River. The great wartime increase in sales value of all types of forest products has led to much closer cutting and utilization of the smaller trees. Some of the area cut over in this way will not restock satisfactorily to the more desirable species. A program of good land use will require that these new problem areas be considered for forest rehabilitation, and partial planting is one alternative. The exact acreage of all problem areas is not important. It would undoubtedly be very large.

Reforestation is one treatment that is well adapted to a wise and ecologically sound and harmonious land-use policy. It should be considered in comparison with other land-use and rehabilitation practices and final decisions should be based on the facts of site capability, although with the realization that economic expediency may modify the best of plans. Too often the background, position, or preferences of the land planners have exerted undue influence on the final decisions.

In a natural forest region the best equilibrium between the forces of nature occurs when the vegetation is climax-type forest; that is, when the forest is one that, for a given natural environment, has reached a final stage in succession and will thereafter maintain itself with little change. At that point there is a harmonious balance between vegetation, rainfall, soil profile, and soil water. Rainfall then gives maximum benefit to vegetation because the conditions of soil and soil-profile are ideal for maximum water storage and for minimum run-off. This expedites plant development which in turn maintains a favorable water economy for the region.

From the standpoint of nature the climax-type vegetation is good land use. From the standpoint of man this is seldom true. Managed forests are usually not climax types. Man's idea is to obtain the maximum amount of plant products in their most usable form.

Nature's Harmony

This ecological concept of nature's harmony, however, is very useful to the land manager. It gives him a reference point by which he can learn how much his used (or misused) soil profile has deteriorated. It suggests to him one method by which the soil profile can be restored and perhaps the only method by which detention storage of water can be fully maintained.

Starting with an abandoned unproductive old field there are perhaps five possible courses of action. Each would be good land-use practice on some sites and under some conditions. Just as surely each would be bad land use under other circumstances.

Alternatives

Going from the least intensive to the most intensive land-use practice the five alternatives for our hypothetical old field are as follows: (1) Do nothing; this is perhaps the most widely practiced. (2) Do nothing, but turn in the livestock; it would then be wild or unimproved pasture. (3) Reforest the field by planting, seeding, encouragement of natural reforestation, or a combination of these methods. (4) Make an improved or permanent pasture at a rather large initial cost per acre. (5) Rehabilitate the land by agronomic techniques and eventually return it to agricultural uses.

In choosing among these alternatives those who work on land problems need to distinguish between technical possibilities and probable economic returns. The roles of topographic, soil-site, silvicultural, watershed, and economic factors are now rather generally known. Much information regarding them is procurable. So far as human frailty will permit, any decisions should be built on these facts, letting the chips fall where they fall.

Reforestation Policy

To dispel any lingering misconceptions it should be pointed out at once that wood is a salable crop, a crop that will always have a value, and one for which new and almost sensational uses are continually being found. No forest owner should fear that his crop may have to rot

on the stump. If markets are low today they may be high tomorrow. This crop will keep.

But one of the hardest problems the land planner faces is compounded of the real or imagined necessities and economies of the individual landowner which impose definite limitations on improved practices. Reforestation of a given field might obviously give the greatest return and the greatest land values in a 50- or 100-year period, yet the owner believes he must continue to gain some small yearly income by expending himself and his soil capital. Compromise and expediency will continue to be necessary.

No Cure-All

Some sections of the general public and possibly some foresters seem to believe that tree planting is a cure-all. It isn't. It has been done when other practices would have been superior. Many failures have occurred. Many plantations will not accomplish what they were intended to accomplish. Too much reforestation has been haphazard and ill-planned. These mistakes are being corrected but when all mistakes are corrected, tree planting still will not be a cure-all. But it does have a proper and an important place in land-use practice.

Where and When

Where, then, should reforestation be done? In general, reforestation is a good land-use practice if: (1) the decreasing of high run-off, caused by the relatively low detention storage in agricultural and pasture soil profiles, is important; (2) the land is not level enough and naturally fertile enough for agronomic techniques to be employed successfully in arable uses; (3) permanent pasture is not a wise use because of the steepness, roughness, lack of required soil fertility, erosion, or other site conditions; (4) the site is not one of the few favored areas where natural or unimproved pasture is really successful; and (5) the site will not reseed naturally and fully to desirable tree species. If this situation prevails, the proper land use is to reforest by planting the right species or mixture of species in the right way.

Choice

Choosing such alternatives is not always easy. Expediency and immediate economic needs of the landowner may loom large in proportion to their real importance in a long-range program of proper land use. In respect to the long-time economic values, land does its best work when that work is in harmony with its natural characteristics. Difficulties of change-over and adjustments are not forgotten, but it is perhaps wiser for man to adapt himself to the land's capacity to produce

FAITH

With the faith of our fathers in our hearts, we fear no future.

—Harry S. Truman

than to impose a land-use pattern that conforms to his particular preferences.

Before Proceeding

After the war there will probably be a very large increase in forest planting. This planting should be done properly and should be guided in the right direction. Planting particular tree species on the wrong site is usually valueless and always wasteful.

A tree planter should be conscious of the complete soil-site complex. The picture beneath the soil surface combined with what he sees above it should be paramount in his mind. Foresters have sometimes sinned against the land in this respect. More information and a fuller use of existing knowledge are needed. The general principles of successful reforestation, as outlined below, should be made applicable to specific cases in a specific way. A good start has been made but additional study is necessary.

Reforestation Guide

The following principles are suggested as a guide to sounder and more successful reforestation policy and practice.

(1) The source of the seed of the plantation should be in the same physiographic and climatic region as the plantation. Definite limits of tolerance have been experimentally determined in only a few cases. The existence of regional or climatic strains within species is established, however, and any tree planter who ignores this fact makes a grave mistake. The mistake is intensified by the fact that many years must usually elapse before it is fully evident.

(2) Reforestation should be confined to native species within their own ranges unless it has been demonstrated that exotics can be successfully used for some particular purpose. In spite of this axiom, the original species on a given old-field site are not necessarily good guides for planting. Most abandoned old fields have been subjected to years of depletion and erosion. The soil profile, structure, and consistency have been changed and the amount of organic matter greatly reduced. The accompanying decrease in soil porosity diminishes the rate of water percolation, amount of detention water storage, and soil aeration. The change in total site value between the original forest and the old field is usually tremendous. This is a well-known but often ill-remembered truth.

Demonstration

(3) Planting should be done on the basis of species adaptation to soil-site conditions, that is, the complex of soil, topography, history, and vegetation. A series of 700 experimental plantations in the Great Appalachian Valley in eastern Tennessee is showing the importance of this. Among the soil factors of the site which influence the choice of species are: nature of soil profile, physical character of soil, history and degree of erosion, topography and aspect, and vegetation type and density. Insofar as soil type is correlated with these characteristics, it too can be used as a planting guide. Trees, in general, differ from agricultural crops and pasture in their requirements as to site. Trees do not re-

Interplay

Conflicts of ideologies with respect to individual, State, or Federal interests and responsibilities inevitably make it difficult for people to view problems and cures objectively . . . But in a democracy the interplay of diverse philosophies has compensating value.

—Lyle F. Watts

quire a fertile soil so much as a soil that has plenty of root space. A soil optimum for tree growth, especially for the hardwoods, is characterized by a deep profile with a loose, friable structure and high porosity. Such soil has good aeration and percolation, high capacity for detention and retention of water, and opportunity for deep root expansion.

Whole Profile

Trees respond to fertility, as such, but the physical character of the whole profile is usually more influential. The selection of species to be planted depends on the degree to which these desirable characteristics of the soil profile are present. The choice ranges all the way from the demanding black walnut and yellow-poplar to the shortleaf pine and red cedar which are so tolerant of poor sites.

Planting

(4) Planting proper mixtures of species is preferable to pure plantations. Pure plantings are usually ecologically unnatural and they often show defective development in middle life. Pure planting is usually necessary, however, on a depleted site that is well adapted to only one species. This is usually a pioneer species, such as shortleaf pine, which does grow rather well in pure stands and which improves the site for the gradual penetration of other species, notably hardwoods.

The planting of mixtures should be guided by the following general rules: (a) all species in the mixture should be adapted to the site; (b) the species should have about the same growth rate on the particular site—that is, mixtures should be compatible; (c) the mixture should be in a checkerboard pattern with groups of 9, 16, or possibly 25 trees of each species; (d) because of the danger of great differences in survival and early growth, mixtures of direct-seeded species and planted species should usually be avoided; and (e) mixtures should usually consist of both conifers and hardwoods.

Watch Out

(5) Presence of some volunteer young growth on the planting site may be an advantage. Undesirable,

brushy species act as site improvers and "trainers" for the planted trees. The planted trees should be placed only in the openings between the volunteer growth; thus the number of trees planted per acre and the corresponding cost are greatly reduced. Planted trees will be suppressed if the volunteer growth is too dense or too high; this calls for on-the-spot decision by a technician.

(6) The method of preparing the site depends upon topography and roughness of land and the nature of the cover and soil. Where power machinery can be used the cost of planting can be greatly reduced. Site-preparation techniques have been fairly well worked out for different regions.

(7) Methods of planting are rather well established. But there is one large unknown: the effect of planting method on root contortion and harm to the tree in later life. It is known that if the roots are twisted, bent, or tangled when planted they continue to grow that way. Such roots may eventually die and form a passage for root and butt-rot fungi. This, along with poor adaptation of species to site and wrong source of seed, may explain the deterioration in some older plantations. The extent of harm that can be done by root contortion due to poor planting is still unknown.

(8) So-called release cuttings in plantations on abandoned farm land are usually not necessary but any possible need is readily ascertained. Planting should not be done on sites that will require release from the undesirable competition unless the release cutting can be provided; otherwise the planting is a waste of money.

In Short

To summarize in a sentence: Reforestation should have a large part in proper land use because it fills a place which nothing else can, but it is not a panacea for all idle-land problems and it requires the conscientious application of technical knowledge.

Intensifying

For the long pull—after we go back to the ways of peace—the role of food in world stability will be equally vital and even more complex. By then the problem will not be one of correcting the sharp and temporary dislocations of war, but of straightening out long-standing maladjustments.

—Howard R. Tolley

Alaska AS A *Farmer Sees It*

By STANLEY L. BALLOUN. *For more than a year the REVIEW has been negotiating for an agricultural article about Alaska from Alaska, but the Gremlins have interfered all along the line. Now an agriculturist, recently from the Midwest, sends the kind of sketch we had in mind.*

THREE FARMING areas are fairly well developed in Alaska—the Matanuska Valley, the Homer area on the Kenai Peninsula, and the Tanana Valley around Fairbanks. Then there are many localities where small farming enterprises and gardens thrive. The Matanuska and Homer areas both lie within the moderate temperatures of Southern Alaska, where winters are scarcely more severe than in the Middle West.

Matanuska is the more extensively developed of the two and had considerable publicity during its settlement by families from Minnesota and Wisconsin. It is a well-rounded farming community with good roads, schools, and churches. An extension agent advises farmers, any boy or girl may join the 4-H Club, and there is a good high school. Palmer is the principal town in the Valley; it would be called a thriving little village if it were in the Midwest. A part of the Valley is withdrawn for the colonization project of the Alaska Rural Rehabilitation Corporation — the land so withdrawn cannot be entered under the Homestead Law. Other parts of the Valley are open for the usual homestead settlement. Formerly all colonists were required to be members of the Matanuska Valley Cooperating Association through which they bought commodities and service and through which they sold farm products. This membership is not compulsory now but most colonists find it to their advantage to belong to the cooperative. Lands within the colony may be resold without restrictions when the colonist has extinguished his indebtedness and acquired fee title. Otherwise the land is reacquired by the corporation for resale.

The Homer area is somewhat less developed but shows much promise. Its soil is very productive with wild bromegrass growing 5 or 6 feet tall. Land is available for homesteading in this area and some cleared and improved land is for sale at reasonable prices. Roads and markets are lacking now but they will undoubtedly be developed.

The Tanana Valley, with Fairbanks as the marketing and trading center, is a promising section but it

is usually overlooked by people who plan to come to Alaska to farm. It is the one I know best. When we came here a winter ago we were amazed to find the farming here so like the farming in Iowa. The Experiment Station has a fine herd of 25 purebred Holsteins, a breeding herd of 8 to 12 Hampshire hogs, and 100 Leghorn layers. The hay in the barn, the oats, wheat, and barley are somewhat heavier than we usually find in the Midwest.

Each morning our six-year-old takes a school bus to the Fairbanks school that is much like the average school in the Midwest. Many of the teachers have recently come from the States.

Balance

We see no Eskimos, igloos, or reindeer but we do have the indescribable beauty of the northern lights, our garden plants in late June make phenomenal growth during the 20-hour sunshine of each day, and the north-slope fields have a characteristic "roughing up" as frost disappears from the subsoil.

The United States Experiment Station, operated by the University of Alaska in cooperation with the Alaska Territory and the United States Department of Agriculture, is 6 miles west of Fairbanks, near College. The farm has about 200 acres cleared and another 200 acres are used as timber pasture and it has much native timberland. Improvements on the experiment farm consist of two dwellings, a modern dairy barn, hog house, machine shed, some granaries, a shop building, and a combination building containing garage, root cellar, and feed-storage warehouse. All buildings that house livestock must be well insulated and have stoves for heat; otherwise, livestock is fed and cared for about as in colder parts of the Midwest.

Windless Cold

Fortunately in the interior of Alaska there is scarcely any wind so that weather of 50° below zero actually affects livestock that is indoors less than a temperature of 10° below would, with the usual winds of the Midwest. A man can work out-of-doors in cold 40° below zero and feel little discomfort. The air is dry and still, the snow is crisp, light, and dry. Barns and houses are better insulated here than in the States, and work is so arranged that very little time need be spent out in the winter weather. But the long period of cold and snow makes livestock farming more difficult, for the very short pasture season means that cattle must be kept indoors and fed from about October to May, with a great increase in labor and feed requirements.

Paradox

Dairy farming is preeminent in the Tanana Valley. There are two well-established dairies, each maintaining about 80 to 100 producers and some young cattle. Neither farm raises all its own feed. Each finds it more profitable to devote time to milking and marketing. They buy much of their replacement stock for it actually costs more to raise heifers here than to have them shipped in from the State of Washington. With milk valued at from 80 cents to $1.25 a gallon at the

New Dimensions

We now enter into a world of imponderables and at every stage self-questioning arises.

—Winston Churchill

dairy, with hay valued at about $40 a ton and grain valued at about $100 a ton, the feed cost alone for a heifer will total about $250 to $300 before the first calf, whereas a good heifer, bred to freshen within a very short time after arrival, can be shipped in at between $200 to $250, delivered at Fairbanks.

There is no regular creamery or market for bulk dairy products. A farmer must develop his own whole-milk retail outlets or market through one of the two dairies or sell through retail stores in Fairbanks. The city takes all the milk produced by the two dairies and could take more without hurting the market. Pasteurized milk retails in Fairbanks at about 30 cents a quart.

Not Spectacular

Dairy farming in this Valley will probably continue to be profitable within limits. Some production improvements to make for greater efficiency will be needed to compete successfully with dried and canned milk. Feeds for cows here have usually been oat and pea silage; oat-pea hay; and mixtures of barley, wheat, oats, and mill feeds for concentrates. Pastures are very poor in general as there are practically no native pasture grasses, and bromegrass, the usual cultivated pasture grass, apparently produces little food value on the soils in the Valley. The Fairbanks Station has successfully grown a hardy yellow-blossomed alfalfa for both hay and pasture, which apparently will reduce the cost of making hay.

Heaving Soil

Timothy, bromegrass, sweetclover, bluegrass, and fescues all do fairly well here. Alsike clover is winter-hardy and there are good stands of alsike 6 and 7 years old. The usual hardy strains of alfalfa do not withstand these winters as their deep roots and well-defined crowns leave them very susceptible to the cold of the subsoil and the constant heaving of the soil.

In Tanana Valley we grow practically all of the common Midwestern crops except corn. All kinds of root crops grow to phenomenal size. Cabbage, broccoli, cauliflower, and head lettuce are especially well adapted and string beans, peas, leaf lettuce, and spinach grow in practically every garden. Peas of fine quality bear all summer and until freezing weather in the fall but such crops as tomatoes and cucumbers develop very poorly because of the coolness of the summers.

Twice

That is what victory will give us—a second chance.

—Virginia Gildersleeve

Many people raise home gardens around Fairbanks, but there is little commercial truck gardening. Until the local merchants are induced to have more confidence in the local quality and supply, there will be little profitable chance for truck gardens here, but more local produce was sold in Fairbanks last year than ever before. In general, the local market handles produce shipped in from Seattle.

Small flocks of poultry are kept successfully by many farmers and part-time farmers but more hens could be raised to advantage. Feed prices are not extremely high considering that fresh eggs bring from $1 a dozen to $1.25 in Fairbanks. Storage eggs sell at about 70 cents a dozen, and old-time sourdoughs are likely to say they prefer them to the "tasteless" fresh eggs. Quarters for poultry must be insulated, and a stove must give a little heat, but the hens do not require much care.

Perhaps

A swine plant near Fairbanks for feeding the garbage from Ladd Field might be profitable. Nearly all of this garbage is now wasted. As there is no established market for live hogs, a farmer must do his own butchering and sell indepedently or to the butcher shops in Fairbanks. The whole carcass can usually be sold at prices ranging from 30 cents to 50 cents a pound, depending upon quality. Swine do well here, and have practically no parasites or diseases. We can grow excellent forage for the pigs in the summer. The winter quarters must be heated somewhat.

Homestead Conditions

Free land in Alaska—we hear a lot about it. Homestead land and new land available for homesteading. But men who have come rather recently to Alaska thinking they would take up a homestead near Fairbanks have usually been disappointed. The free land is back in the timber away from established roads. A settler has to build his own road through several miles of timber or muskeg swamp, clear the timber from his land, hire a tractor and "breaking plow" at a rate of about $10 to $15 an acre to turn over the brush and moss, and then it will take about 3 years for the brush and moss to decay enough so that the land can be farmed with ordinary tools. There is the alternative method of hiring a bulldozer to pile up the brush, trees, and moss and then setting fire to the accumulation, but this leaves a soil that is very low in organic matter and nitrogen content so that much fertilizer would be needed for growing satisfactory crops.

Land

Practically all of the good virgin land is covered with a growth of spruce and birch and has a ground cover of about 4 to 10 inches of moss. In this dry, cold climate there

is very little decay of organic matter in the soil and this moss breaks down very slowly, even when turned under.

Improved land can be bought but it is not cheap. Land on gravel highways, at least partly cleared but with no improvements, has been selling for about $50 an acre within a 5-mile radius of Fairbanks. If there are buildings, the land may sell for $80 or more an acre.

Rewards

Agricultural Alaska is a land of real opportunity for those hardy people who are willing to live rather lonely lives in pioneer surroundings, and to work hard. Many have been disappointed in what they have found here; others have come to Alaska expecting to work and to stay and have made a success of their farming—but not in a hurry. Success stories are frequent, in farming and business as well as in gold. Low fertility of the soil in most places, low temperatures, long winters, and isolation break some people and stimulate others. To him who overcometh, Alaska offers a wealth of untouched scenery, of vast forests and plains, of rampant flowers and berries in the short sunny season, unsurpassed views of the dazzling aurora borealis, and the possibility of an income beyond the hopes of most farmers in the States.

OVER and *OVER*

Wherever we turn in our search for ways to maintain farm income after the war we are always forced to the conclusion that the farm problem is really much broader than agriculture itself. Farm prosperity is definitely linked up with a high level of nonfarm employment here at home. Also, it is inescapably bound up with the welfare of the peoples throughout the world. And the welfare of other peoples, in turn, is very much dependent on our willingness to buy their products or services as well as sell ours.

—Claude R. Wickard

SEEDS for the WORLD

By W. A. WHEELER. *That is a big order, but in regard to vegetable seed our country has accepted and filled it, sending seed adapted to the various climates of all parts of the globe. The Contributors' page shows the author's connection with this work but it does not add that he was a member of the USDA Seed Supply Committee in World War I and conferred in Europe with representatives of other Allied countries on seed-supply problems immediately following the Armistice.*

A YEAR OR MORE before Pearl Harbor, Europe had been overrun by the Nazis and the water lanes between many countries had been shut off by submarines, leaving only the United States and Canada as readily accessible sources of large food supplies. Since vegetable seed for planting is potentially the most concentrated form of food or food-producing material that can be shipped, it was given a high degree of priority on both production and shipments.

The portion of Europe overrun by the Nazis had in pre-war days produced a large portion of the vegetable seeds used. Now other sources of supply had to be found. As Canadian vegetable-seed production had not been developed on a large scale the United States was the only fruitful source.

Ever since World War I the United States had produced considerable quantities of vegetable seeds, mostly for planting within the United States and Canada. Now it was necessary to produce for a greatly expanded domestic use, because of the call for a far greater production of vegetable foods, and to provide seeds to all of the other United Nations and to friendly neutrals. Truly a great responsibility.

The unfolding of this story of vegetable-seed production and distribution from 1940 to 1945 could read like a tale of fiction. Quick expansion, rapid varietal adaptation, maintenance of quality, making just allocations in the face of urgencies, shipping by rail, by water, and by air—it has been a series of adventures.

The requirements of vegetable seeds by the United Nations and friendly neutrals were at first unknown. The roughest kind of estimates had to be made in order to formulate a program of adequate production. As time went on, however, individual countries came through with better estimates of their needs as to both variety and quantity. As each year passed, this picture of requirements has become more nearly complete, placing the United States in a better position to know what it was expected to do.

Vegetable seeds have been supplied, during the last 2 years and

largely through Lend-Lease to a list that spans the alphabet and the world. They have been supplied direct to the American Red Cross and to the U. S. Army. They have also gone to the Governments of Arabia, Australia, the Balkan countries, Belgium, Belgian Congo, Brazil, British East Africa, Ceylon, China, Costa Rica, Cuba, Czechoslovakia, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Ethiopia, France, French Cameroons, French North Africa, Gold Coast, Greece, Holland, Honduras, India, Italy, Luxembourg, Malta, Martinique, New Hebrides, Nigeria, Panama, Paraguay, Peru, Poland, Puerto Rico, Russia, Southwest and Central Pacific Islands, Sweden, Union of South Africa, United Kingdom, Venezuela, and Virgin Islands.

World Span

Considering the reach of territory covered by such designations as Russia, the United Kingdom, and the Southwest Pacific, it is evident that American-grown seeds are sprouting in all parts of the world, if not in every country.

Because of the very limited supplies in 1940 and 1941, the allocations to claimant countries in many cases covered only a small percentage of the real needs. Each year afterward the supplies became more plentiful. By 1944 the United States produced enough vegetable seed to supply practically the world.

Record Figures

To give an idea of what has been accomplished a few many-digit figures are necessary. In pre-war years the average 3-year production of the large-seeded vegetables—peas, beans, and sweet corn—was about 100 million pounds; in 1943 and 1944 the average was nearly 300 million pounds. The 3-year average production of small vegetable seeds was formerly about 10 million pounds; the 1944 production was more than 35 million pounds. The four leading biennial seed crops—beet, cabbage, carrot, and onion—in 1944 showed production increases from the 3-year average 1939–41 as follows: Beet seed from 1,311,000 to 5,144,000 pounds, cabbage seed from 424,000 to 2,009,000 pounds, carrot seed from 978,000 to 4,334,000 pounds, onion seed from 469,000 to 2,627,000 pounds. In 1944, the production of these four crops of seed was nearly 4½ times the pre-war average.

Indispensable

In peace or in war food is as essential as the air we breathe.

—Marvin Jones

Phenomenon

To make these increases during 4 years with seed crops which require specialized areas of production and highly technical handling and supervision, is a phenomenal accomplishment for the vegetable-seed growers of our country. Ordinary farmers or novices in this work could not undertake the job. It had to be performed by those growers who, through many years of experience, had developed facilities in the way

of vegetable-seed breeding and specialized processing that equipped them for the huge task. It is one thing simply to get plants to produce seed. It is another problem to produce seed of varietal purity, good quality, and proper adaptation for efficient food production in the certain areas where it is to be sown or planted. Quantity was only the beginning of the problem.

Quality Heightened

Realizing that the higher prices to be paid during the war might bring unqualified producers into the business who would deliver low-quality seed produced at low cost, a special field inspection service was developed by the Department of Agriculture. Through the setting up of eligibility requirements for producers, through field inspection and the testing of all lots produced for foreign shipment, the quality of our seed has been maintained at or above prewar levels. It might have been expected that under war conditions the quality would have been lowered very materially but it has been said by some who are in position to know that the quality of vegetable seed has been improved and that the methods used during this war production to maintain high quality will have their effect for many years to come.

Peak vs. Taper

The years 1944 and 1945 will probably represent the peak of war production. Some 75 million dollars worth of all seeds have been purchased from this country mainly through Lend Lease during the last 3 years. The greater part of the vegetable seed has been produced under contracts with commercial growers. A large number of the important kinds—including beet, cabbage, carrot, and onion—are biennial. On these items contracts must be placed 2 years in advance of production.

Because of the uncertainty of the demands that may be made on the acreages planted, it is a puzzling matter to plan our vegetable-seed supply in these times. At this writing, we still don't know what China and some of the European countries will need. In 1944 we reached a production that met the world-wide requirements; in 1945, if we have average yields we shall have enough to meet them again. Now we are confronted with the problem of adjusting our supply or tapering off toward a transition or post-war period. This tapering may be a more critical and difficult problem than was the reaching of the huge total.

The Seed

Supplying this seed in the right quantities, varieties, and adaptations has made it possible for the men in our armed forces in many lands and, through the auspices of the Red Cross, for our men and women who are prisoners of war in concentration camps to produce fresh food for their own diets. And we have enabled civilian populations among the United Nations, friendly neutrals, and people in liberated areas to grow their own.

Economic Control through Agricultural Credit Aids

By DONALD C. HORTON. *As instruments of public policy these aids are analyzed in relation to their basic elements, the nature of the controls they exert, their limitations and advantages to agriculture, and their possibilities in post-war economic welfare.*

ECONOMIC control, in the broadest sense of that term, is involved in a large number of the activities of the Federal Government, for these activities help to determine the setting within which individuals and different sectors of the national economy operate. In company with other public policies relating to agriculture, those relating to the financing of farming have important implications when considered from the viewpoint of economic controls operating in this field.

Specific Federal measures in relation to agricultural finance have taken the form mainly of credit aids for farmers. Two basic elements have been present in most of these aids of the last quarter-century: (1) Promotion, or direct provision, of more favorable business-credit arrangements for agriculture and (2) absorption by the Federal Government of varying proportions of the costs and losses resulting from the loan operations in which it participates. These two elements, which may be designated for convenience as the *enterprise* and the *subsidy* elements respectively, have been compounded in the past in widely different proportions—for example, mainly promotion of favorable business-credit arrangements involving little subsidy in the case of the early Federal land banks, as contrasted with substantial subsidies in the case of many of the agricultural loans of the middle 1930's.

Relationships of government to farmers in connection with these credit aids usually have taken the *form* of customary business transactions. But the *substance* has often included the performance of certain quasi-governmental functions considered sufficiently beneficial from the viewpoint of general welfare to warrant partial financing with public funds. The Federal Government has acted both in the capacity of an "enterpriser" and in its more conventional capacity as "government." From one viewpoint, the Federal Government has entered the field of private enterprise. From another, it has performed public functions through business relationships with farmers.

Three principal features of these aids need to be distinguished when they are considered from the viewpoint of economic control. The most obvious is direct administrative control over the individual borrowers who receive special credit treatment. Less obvious, but perhaps of even greater long-run im-

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portance, is the indirect control exercised by these credit aids through "the market." Still more elusive is that additional form of control that works itself out indirectly through the credit system in its capacity as a source of money supply. Although not administratively separable, these three kinds of control need to be distinguished in any appraisal of the over-all significance of credit aids for the operating economy.

Administrative Control

All loan operations, regardless of the lender, involve the exercise of some control over borrowers, for this is a necessary counterpart of the temporary surrender of control over funds by the lender. In this sense all federally sponsored loan activities involve some economic control designed to protect the Federal Government against excessive losses as a lender.

Some of the federally sponsored agricultural credit arrangements have involved control over individual borrowers very similar to that found in the case of most private loans. This has been true in general for such credit institutions as the Federal land banks, the Federal Farm Mortgage Corporation, and the production credit associations. Some additional controls having public objectives that reach beyond those usually associated with credit contracts have been present in certain of the emergency crop and feed loans; also in certain of the loans made by the Regional Agricultural Credit Corporation. But administrative control over individual borrowers, directed to rather broad social objectives, has been present to a much greater extent in many of the loans made by the Farm Security Administration.

When the Federal Government and federally sponsored credit institutions extend credit on unusually favorable terms, they are usually in a position to exercise more than the customary degree of control over their borrowers. This additional economic power may stem from a number of circumstances—mere ability to lend in periods of general credit stringency; willingness to lend to particular groups of borrowers at a rate of interest below that required to cover the full cost of the service including loan losses; and public sponsorship of new self-supporting credit institutions that can offer advantages to borrowers not available elsewhere even under "normal" conditions. Although the "spending power" of the Federal Government lies back of its strategic position as a lender, any special advantages it can offer borrowers as an "enterpriser" also strengthens this strategic position to some extent.

How Much Control?

It would be surprising indeed, if governmental credit aids did not give rise to some controversy, for such measures necessarily increase the potential scope of the economic power of government. Those who believe that the Federal Government should have a prominent part in the regulation of economic affairs are very likely to emphasize the potential benefits from these credit aids. Others, who as a matter of principle would confine the scope of the economic power of the Federal Government rather narrowly, are likely to emphasize possible dangers in such arrangements. Many of the

controversial issues with regard to particular governmental credit aids for agriculture, therefore, are likely to have roots in long-standing cleavages of opinion regarding the benefits and dangers of economic control over individuals by government. Conflicting schools of thought on this basic question are not a recent phenomenon, as is sometimes suggested in current discussions of "bureaucracy."

Through Market

Agricultural credit aids have an influence both on the usual business operations of the rural economy and on the functioning of the credit system as a part of the national monetary system. These two kinds of influences are merged with still others, and are difficult to identify separately. But the mere fact that agricultural credit aids can indirectly influence *total money supply* necessitates a distinction between their competitive influences that operate through the market and their other indirect influences that operate through the relation of money supply to the aggregate flow of purchasing power.

The influence of credit aids through the market is manifested in many ways. For example, one overall effect of extensive participation of the Federal Government in agricultural lending on a favorable basis for borrowers is to alter the competitive setting within which private rural credit institutions operate. Effects on private lenders in rural areas are likely to be a mixture of (1) assistance to them as well as to borrowers in times of financial strain, (2) competitive pressure both on lenders' interest rates and on their terms and conditions of loans in "normal" times, and (3) a tendency for some of the private lenders to shift out of agricultural lending into less competitive fields.

A second rather general effect of credit aids is likely to be a tendency for the national agricultural plant to be larger than it otherwise would have been. Credit arrangements are one of many factors that influence the allocation of capital and other resources between agriculture and other sectors of the national economy. A part of the influence of favorable credit arrangements for agriculture, however, may be felt in higher relative valuations of existing agricultural resources—such as farm real estate—so that the money value of the agricultural plant may be increased without necessarily increasing to the same extent the amount of real capital used in agriculture. Even so, these higher capital values have an indirect influence on resource allocation by providing a larger potential credit base against which farm owners can borrow.

Selective

Because most credit aids are selective in their application, they exercise an influence also on the distribution of production resources within the rural economy. For example, loans made to finance farming in areas in which credit previously had been available only in limited amounts or on terms unfavorable for the borrowers give an added stimulus to the production of products adapted to such areas. More capital and other resources are thereby allocated to this production. To the extent that these products compete in the market

with others produced in areas not enjoying cheaper credit, the production pattern of farming in the latter areas has to be adjusted to this new factor in the competitive situation. This may lead to a net reduction in the resources employed in such areas.

The indirect control exercised over the rural economy through credit aids depends on the particular standards adopted by publicly sponsored credit agencies in furnishing special credit treatment. Special credit treatment for owner-operators, for example, favors this particular kind of tenure arrangement in agriculture. Special credit arrangements set up to tap the competitive central money markets as a cheaper and more reliable source of loan funds for farmers favors those farmers whose loans will qualify as security for obligations to be sold in such a money market. These usually are the farmers whose loans involve relatively low risks. Moreover, loans made to farmers who are engaged in unusually risky kinds of agriculture, or to farmers who have limited resources of their own, bolster those kinds of farming and kinds of business structures in agriculture. These several influences have been present in the credit aids of the last quarter century.

Indirect Control

Even without a detailed examination of all the agricultural credit aids of that period, there can be little doubt that they have exerted varying degrees of economic pressure tending to influence the structure and operation of the private credit system, the size and the general composition of the national agricultural plant, and many other structural features of the rural economy. Indirect economic control exercised in this way has been intentional in some cases, as in promotion of owner operation; but in most cases this control has been a byproduct of credit programs designed to accomplish other purposes. Because these indirect effects are difficult to measure, they are likely to be given too little attention in the formulation of credit policies.

Money Supply

Implications of credit aids for over-all economic control through money supply are especially significant when consideration is given to the indirect effects of specific credit measures in behalf of agriculture on other sectors of the economy. In times of generally reduced money incomes, the credit system has tended to "freeze up," partly because lenders have been unable or unwilling to lend and partly because borrowers have been unable or unwilling to borrow. Willingness of the Federal Government to shoulder a part of the risks and costs of credit under such circumstances facilitates credit expansion (or retards credit contraction), and so helps to bolster money incomes. Under depression conditions these general effects are likely to be beneficial for the economy as a whole as well as for the lenders and borrowers immediately concerned.

In periods of boom, credit aids also have sufficient potential significance for money supply to require that they be evaluated from that viewpoint. Under such conditions, their general expansionary effects

may run counter to the public interest in the total money supply. This means that some of the advantages of credit arrangements in dealing with specific agricultural problems may be offset by the undesirable influence exerted on total money supply. Under such conditions instruments of economic control that are neutral or even restrictive in their monetary effects may have decided advantages over credit aids.

Use of control instruments that have inflationary influences may nevertheless be dictated by the need for speedy redirection of the rural economy, as in a wartime emergency. Under such conditions, however, expansionary credit arrangements are very likely to be used in conjunction with general fiscal policies of an anti-inflationary nature, so that their expansionary effects on total money supply are at least partially offset.

Agricultural Contact

It seems probable that the need to choose among alternative avenues through which to make governmental contact with particular agricultural problems will continue. Government policies have been associated in the past with a large number of different quasi-business and governmental relationships between the Federal Government and rural people. Lending money to farmers is only one among many of these relations. A thorough analysis of the technical characteristics of the financing process when viewed as a contact point between the Government and the rural people involves too much for summary treatment, but a few thoughts may be offered briefly to provoke further discussion.

The principal technical arrangements through which public policy, operating through financing arrangements, can directly influence the rural economy are: (1) By making loan capital available to rural people, (2) by favorable interest rates and other terms and conditions of loans, and (3) by the exercise of special control over borrowers in connection with individual loan contracts. An important question, therefore, relates to whether particular agricultural problems are associated with the use of borrowed money in such a way that financing farming can serve as a vehicle for effective public action to deal with them.

Limitations

All farmers use capital both as producers and as consumers, but the extent to which *borrowed* capital is used (or would be used if available) varies widely among different farm families. For example, the financing process makes only limited business contacts with those farmers who are so well off that they do not need to borrow and with those so low in

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Storm Sails

The dogmas of the quiet past are inadequate to the stormy present . . . as our cause is new, so we must think and act anew.

—Abraham Lincoln

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the economic scale that credit is of no great use to them. Moreover, borrowing money is not of equal importance for all members of a particular producer or consumer group. Such considerations alone suggest that the financing process has distinct limitations as a technical point of contact through which to influence particular groups in the rural economy.

Possibilities

The financing process is likely to be very useful as a contact point in connection with certain types of agricultural problems that are characteristic of depression periods. Under these conditions the Government can exercise a direct influence on large numbers of rural people, both by furnishing a credit service that is not otherwise available, and by furnishing it on terms favorable for the borrowers.

The financing process has distinctive advantages also as an avenue through which to deal with particular kinds of situations that are not peculiar to depressions, for many continuing agricultural problems are directly associated with the use of loan-capital by farmers. For example, promotion of farm ownership for groups with limited capital of their own, enlarging farm units to a size adequate to yield a reasonable income, major capital improvements for the farm business and farm home, capital inputs such as are involved in publicly sponsored conservation and land-development programs—all these involve potential uses of borrowed capital by farmers.

Moreover, loan transactions usually provide a better basis than general price aids for selective assistance, for each loan is a separate transaction. Because selection of borrowers is accepted as necessary in all credit arrangements, loans are likely to provide an acceptable basis also for differential treatment of borrowers based on broad considerations of public policy.

Finally, because loan contracts carry the implication of at least some direct control by the lender, the use of financing operations as a contact with agricultural problems can be helpful when the public objectives require that certain groups adhere to performance standards over an extended period that can be covered by a loan contract.

Policy Instruments

If, as many people think, governmental action is likely to play an important part in post-war agriculture, it is probable that the financing process will continue to be one of several important contact points between our Government and our rural people. How effective credit transactions alone can be as "conveyor belts" for public agricultural policies depends heavily on what kind of public policies these credit arrangements are called upon to effectuate. Good results in any field of public policy can be achieved only by using control instruments that are technically adapted to the job assigned to them. We need to know more about what can and cannot be done with credit aids. Indeed, a better understanding of the technical characteristics of all important instruments of public agricultural policy, including credit aids, would go far to provide a better basis for the evaluation of specific measures in the post-war period.

Farm Old-Age Security: Chance for Youth and Veterans

By PAUL A. EKE. *From Idaho comes this outline of a tentative plan designed to strengthen old-age security for farmers and at the same time provide increased opportunities for returning service men and for rural youth. Its author offers it for consideration and discussion. It does not necessarily represent the thought of his institution or of this magazine.*

SOCIAL SECURITY for farmers resolves itself largely into a question of reliable and adequate incomes in old age. Their security in the past has been dependent chiefly upon accumulating an operator's equity in a farm business. In most instances attempts have been made, upon retirement, to live on the income from the equity, the principal being transmitted to heirs as an estate. Frequently, children have cared for parents on a promise of inheriting the farm. This method does not now seem feasible for lately children have not, as a rule, contributed very much to building the estate and often they have not felt they were in a position to care for aged parents.

Faced with this situation many farmers continue to follow tradition in giving up active farm work to live on inadequate incomes from their farm equities. Lack of familiarity with and faith in the newer financial institutions that could provide an annuity from the combined interest and principal is partly the reason. With returning servicemen and war industrial workers seeking livelihoods on farms after the war, a better system of old-age security for farmers could seemingly be used as a tool in giving these men more opportunities. From past experience it is estimated that only 350,000 commercial farms will be available for young farmers immediately after the war, and these will not care for even the more mature and experienced farm boys now in the service and in emergency industrial work.

The question then arises, How can more farm opportunities be provided? The answer lies chiefly in making it easy and desirable for older and physically unfit farmers to retire. This would fit in well with the hopes and ambitions of most farmers. They look forward to independence in old age. A tentative program for making such retirement possible is outlined below.

As a start it is assumed that provisions of the old-age and survivors insurance will eventually be made available to all farmers and farm laborers, to domestic and all other kinds of labor, and to all self-employed persons, in substantially the same form as for occupations now covered by the Social Security

Act. It is further assumed that net incomes will be the basis for benefits and for supporting taxation for all self-employed persons. Farmer's net incomes could be learned from income-tax reports to be required of all farm operators. This suggested program is, therefore, supplementary to an expanded Social Security Act.

Older farmers would have certain monthly benefits after they have qualified for full insurance. These benefits would be considerably lower for most farmers than for most industrial workers because farmers have lower average net cash incomes. For this reason going completely away from the shelter and food furnished by the farm would be impracticable for most farmers.

Tentative Program

To ameliorate this situation and for other benefits, the following program is suggested.

1. A guaranteed life annuity with a liberal upper limit could be sold by the Government to the retiring farm operator who can pay for it with his equity in a farm or in farm equipment, livestock, and cash savings. The operator would sell or cash equities sufficient to pay for the minimum annuities required and for any amount desired above this up to a certain maximum allowed by law. All farmers over a certain age, say 55 or 60 years, would be eligible to make application upon retirement from active commercial farm operation, though the farm business need not be sold. The sum of the earned monthly benefit under the Social Security Act (due at 65 years), plus what the farmer purchased, would have to equal a minimum figure which is judged to be a reasonably safe amount for retirement in the area in which he lives. If the farmer later earned more than a certain amount in wages per month or entered active commercial farming, the earned benefit payments would be stopped in a way provided for in the Social Security Act, and payment from the purchased annuities would be suspended and allowed to accrue to the date when the farmer again applied for retirement.

The operator would sell his farm at private sale or in some instances to a Government agency such as the Farm Security Administration, and (or) cash securities sufficient to pay for the minimum annuities required in his area or any desired amount above this up to a certain maximum allowed by law. The cost of annuities would be determined by standard experience tables. For any farmer and his wife the costs will depend upon the ages of each when the annuity is purchased and the ages when the monthly benefit payments are to begin.

Illustration

For example, if an operator had a farm which he sold for $10,000 and paid off a mortgage of $5,000 he could spend $2,500 for an annuity for himself and a like amount for his wife. If the operator was 10 years older than his wife and annuity payments for each were to begin at 60 years of age the wife could buy a somewhat larger monthly payment with her $2,500 in spite of the fact that average longevity is a little higher for women than for men. Or the

Menace

Poverty anywhere is a threat to prosperity and civilization everywhere.

—Frances Perkins

farmer and his wife might each buy a $2,000 annuity and reserve $1,000 for emergency or special use.

These annuity policies would be irrevocable and no policy loans would be allowed on their current cash value. To allow this would defeat the chief purpose of old-age security legislation.

A choice might be allowed. It might be possible either to purchase an annuity that would be for life and allow no refund after death or to purchase a policy which allows a refund of the balance to heirs. The latter policy would yield considerably less per month from the same purchase price. Where grants are involved the former policy probably should be required.

2. Farmers reaching 65 years of age could apply for the benefits described above and the same qualifying conditions would be imposed. But, in addition, either an owner or a tenant, who does not at this age obtain enough—from the sale of his farm business, plus cash savings (including any endowment insurance, etc.), and in Social Security accumulations—to pay for a certain minimum monthly benefit in full, would be given a grant to supply this deficit. Certain safeguards should be required such as proof that all or part of the farm and other assets had not been given away or squandered during the 5 or 10 years preceding the application for this grant.

3. Totally and permanently disabled farmers could purchase guaranteed annuities from the Government at any age after being qualified for full insurance under the Social Security Act.

4. The annuities purchased by funds from the equity in the farm business and from other assets should be divided to give annuities to husband and to wife equally at any desired age for each, beginning not earlier than 55 or 60 years, and perhaps in some States necessarily divided in conformity to community property laws. Or perhaps a joint and survivorship annuity, which means that both lives are insured together, would be preferable.

In Addition

Certain questions of policy arise. What about minimum monthly benefits? If they are decided upon, grants will be required. Standards for gauging the amount of these grants could be established, by regions, from cost-of-living indexes already compiled by the United States Department of Agriculture. The monthly benefit could be adjusted each year to fluctuate from some suitable base period, conforming with fluctuations in the official cost-of-living index.

It might be thought a wise policy to include certain basic comforts in the provisions. The Government might finance, with direct or guaranteed loans, dwellings for those elderly couples who want them. These might be individual cottages or something resembling apartment houses. Subsidies for minimum comforts might be justi-

fied for the farmers who have the minimum monthly benefit.

It may be good policy to provide so that medical attention for life can be bought for both husband and wife, by payment of a lump sum to the Government. The Government could then make required payments to a qualified mutual, cooperative, or governmental health agency. Funeral expenses could be cared for in a similar way. For some farmers it may be necessary to provide for this, in part or entirely, through a grant.

Consideration might well be given to the policy of developing for sale certain Government retirement bonds which farmers and others could buy and use in purchasing immediate retirement annuities and health insurance as suggested in this plan.

For Discussion

The writer offers this tentative program for discussion by farm organizations as a possible important feature in their post-war plans for greater farm efficiency and better farm living. Are the policies it involves sound and practicable? Would it improve general as well as farmer welfare? Veteran's organizations also might find this a theme worthy of their attention.

Aftermath

Education would be necessary after this plan became law. Government agencies that are in contact with farmers—such as the Farm Security Administration, Soil Conservation Service, Farm Credit Administration, and Extension Service—could supply leaflets explaining the plan and procedure and could display posters in their field offices. Application blanks could be carried by these agencies and printed matter could be mailed out to likely clients.

Undoubtedly Social Security Offices would need to be expanded to include an agricultural division in each district. This division would administer all provisions. In some instances these Government agencies, particularly the Farm Security Administration, might well act as an agent for Social Security Offices and work closely in assisting farmers to comply with the provisions in regard to the sale or lease of their farm properties. This would be particularly desirable in a zoned area or where farms should be consolidated. For a time after the war, veterans' organizations might search out clients, while they are assisting veterans.

Many might benefit besides the farmers and their wives. Young men who want to farm and real estate agents would like to have elderly farmers take advantage of this plan. Areas that are highly favored by nature, such as can be found in California, Florida, and other States, where retired farmers and their wives like to go, would be more than kindly disposed toward this program. Rural villages and cities would occasionally find the plan encouraged their expansion and growth. Some recreational places would have added business. All sorts of services for the aged—medical, religious, literary—might find a solid basis for support and expansion. Insurance companies might find it profitable to offer a competitive retirement policy that would give about the same service to retired farmers. If the plan here outlined proved worth while, custom would soon play a large part in its expansion.

ANSWERING AN *SOS* FROM *South Africa*

By HUGH HAMMOND BENNETT. *To make the survey on which this article is based the author braved the discomforts of bomber travel, encountered several lions, and side-stepped a cobra or two. Being Chief of the SCS must now seem somewhat tamer work than it ever has before.*

FROM my visit to the Union of South Africa last year, I came away with two distinct impressions. One is that if South Africa is to survive in any sound agricultural sense, a comprehensive soil conservation program must be instituted without delay. The other has to do with the rare but excellent examples of erosion-control practices that I saw with my own eyes which indicated that their problem, as a whole, should not be as difficult of solution in the physical sense as the problem we confront in our country.

The purpose of my journey was to consult with officials of the Union Government regarding their soil-erosion problem. I had been warned that their problem was extremely serious and rapidly growing worse. I knew, too, that as far back as 1923, a special drought committee had conducted an extensive study of the Union's land areas and given an alarming report on the prevalence of severe erosion.

Soon after my arrival I found that many serious-minded South Africans were much concerned about the widespread erosion damage. They were impatient for action. A considerable amount of research and educational work had been carried on but nothing much had been done to the land.

We soon agreed that before making any recommendations I must see the land itself for a first-hand observation of its condition and needs. With officials of the Soil and Veld Conservation Division of the Union of South Africa Department of Agriculture I set out to see the situation. We toured the Union widely and I was invited to speak out at any time in any critical way that seemed best. The cause for their alarm became evident as we traveled. There was active erosion almost everywhere—on grazing land as well as cropland, and in most cases little was being done about it.

As might be expected from our own experience in the United States, most of the native farmers and many of the Europeans did not fully appreciate what was happening to their land. This lack of understanding of the erosion process is more serious than might be supposed.

People don't go out and wilfully destroy their farm lands. Nevertheless, failure to recognize the deadly meaning of erosion until the land has been severely damaged or completely ruined for any practical use has impoverished many nations in the past and has even been a principal cause for the decay and downfall of entire civilizations. Still too many of us go right on making the same mistakes with all of these records before us. And it could be stopped—to our great advantage from every point of view.

Devastation

Too often, in South Africa, we saw large areas of formerly good land that have literally washed away, particularly where the natives were densely concentrated. For example, a large area in Natal that was inspected in detail was completely devastated. Both the soil and subsoil had washed off down to bedrock on most of the land and the people who formerly farmed this land were stranded. Some were going miles from their huts to plant small patches of corn wherever they could find a plot of ground that still had some soil left on it. Others were going hundreds of miles to work in the mines near Johannesburg. Many of these people were not merely undernourished but were actually hungry.

Many such devastated areas are called labor farms. Owners of the land turn certain tracts over to the natives to do with as they please. In the place of rental, the native operators devote half their time working on the owner's farm. In other words, a part of South Africa's irreplaceable soil is being used up as a medium of payment for farm work. The native farmers seldom know or even care anything about modern conservation farming methods. Consequently, the soil usually washes away faster than it could be hauled away in a truck.

In another region—in the section between Pietersburg and the Drakensberg highlands in northern Transvaal—a solid block of more than 100,000 acres of once good land has been stripped of practically all the topsoil by both natives and Europeans. Contour farming, crop rotation, and other soil-conserving practices are almost unheard of in the area. Both animal manure and corn stalks are burned for fuel. In fact, every vestige of crop residue left in the fields is grazed to the bare surface of the ground, leaving the soil exposed to the vicissitudes of wind and water most of the time. Present yields of corn on such land range from nothing to about 3 or 4 bushels per acre—too little to support people in any adequate sense.

In the Orange Free State we traveled more than 200 miles along a main highway without seeing a single field on which soil-conserving practices were being used. This region is suffering extensively from sheet erosion.

Abandonment

Approaching Capetown from the Northeast, we noted destructive erosion over practically the entire wheat belt of that region. Indeed, much of what was formerly the Union's best wheat land has been abandoned because the soil has become so thin above its rock base that it is no longer plowable. Worthless rhinoceros weed covers thousands on thousands of acres of formerly good land that is now ruined.

Sheep raising once brought easy fortunes to many ranchers of the Great Karoo, a shrub-covered region in the Cape of Good Hope province, lying midway between the desert country to the west and the higher rainfall section of the east. Today erosion is on the march over millions of such acres. Only where protective measures have been introduced has the land remained good sheep country.

In my travels far and wide throughout this world I have seen many sad examples of erosion, but I have never, anywhere, come across more mismanagement of land than we found in the Karoo. Repeated burning and overgrazing of the highland areas have destroyed the ground's normal sponginess. Rain that once infiltrated into the soil through a cover of vegetation now runs off the bared surface as from a metal roof, flooding the associated flat lands, and taking with it the topsoil of both the slopes and flats.

Restoratives

Happily, there is still time to restore some of this land to a degree of its former productivity. Without delay, the highlands of the Karoo and the other hill and mountainous regions of central and eastern South Africa should be fenced and protected against fire. This, of course, necessitates Government action. Also, reforestation and restrictive grazing of certain areas would be helpful.

Erosion control on a large scale calls for treatment of the land according to its adaptability through scientifically applied measures. There are no short cuts. As a rule, farmers need technical assistance which the Government should provide as its share of keeping land productive for the permanent welfare of the Nation.

Far from being impracticable, the introduction of conservation measures has many advantages. First of all, it is easier, more economical, and more remunerative to prevent erosion than to follow ordinary wasteful farming methods. For instance, contour plowing across slopes on the level requires less gasoline and less time than plowing up and down slopes. Plowing on the level utilizes less animal and manpower, and is less wearing on machines. More important, with the increase in yields per acre that accompanies conservation farming, beginning usually with the first crop, it follows, quite naturally, that the producer's income is increased.

The job of the staff of the South African Department of Agriculture and others interested in conservation matters should prove considerably easier than ours in the United States has been because of the smoother slopes prevalent in the Union and because of the greater variety of soil-improving and soil-binding grasses native to South Africa.

Examples of Success

Now for examples of erosion control, attesting to its worth many times over: studying the country in detail brought us into contact with occasional farmers who were profiting from the advice of South Africa's capable technicians. Dr. Hans Marensky, a Transvaal farmer, is achieving success with citrus fruit, avocados, and bananas through contour planting on a large scale. In addition, he has restored eroded slopes to good grazing land. More

than that, working conservation magic on prematurely dry springs and small streams, he has brought them back to normal. A new variety of voodoo stuff, you might say. Incidentally, the controlled run-off from contour planting can be utilized downstream for stock water and to grow the feed to carry cattle through the dry period of late winter.

In Swaziland and especially in Basutoland, farmed mostly by Negroes, some highly successful conservation work is being done with contour embankments. Curiously enough, the natives were benefiting from soil and water conservation practices introduced by specialists who had spent considerable time studying such practices in the United States. Evidencing the value of the new farming methods, corn yields were stepped up from approximately 3 bushels to 12 to 15 bushels an acre.

Why Not?

"How do you like these contour farming practices?" I asked a Basuto chief.

"Frankly, we were slow in adopting them because we didn't realize their importance," he said. "Now that we have seen their advantages, we consider them a blessing; they not only prevent the formation of dongas (gullies), they give us more to eat."

I turned to my South African coworkers. "We've been discussing more or less difficult questions of erosion control, yet here's a solid block of 10,000 acres where Europeans and natives, working together, have completed a first-class job of up-to-date soil conservation. If they can do it, why can't everyone?"

Space does not permit outlining in detail the national program drawn up for the conservation of South Africa's agricultural lands, but it may be said that the one left with them was based largely on the national soil conservation program under way in the United States.

National Program

If the plan is adopted, it certainly will help to solve some very real human problems — problems so tough that most folks are inclined to leave them alone after one look at them—or go off on a tangent for a lot of theorizing, whereas the only way to keep land productive or improve impoverished farm land is to introduce practices tested and found worth while: contour cultivation, strip cropping, terracing, run-off control, crop rotation with soil-building legumes, application of animal manure and compost, and the retirement of steep, erodible slopes to the production of trees or grass.

Already the practicability of soil and water conservation practices has been demonstrated in South Africa. Under conservation laws, a number of Conservation Areas have been established—one of which is the Drakensberg Area in Natal, comprising 3,000 square miles of severely eroded land along the Tugele and Mooi Rivers.

I believe that the good results obtained in South Africa where conservation practices have been tried out will serve as a springboard for tackling the national erosion problem. The fact that the Union sent an S O S (Save Our Soil) to the United States indicates that South Africa definitely is aware of the threat to its soil fertility—indispensable to the life of the nation's people.

"Smoke Gets in Your Eyes"

By CHARLES E. GAGE. *It's not just this year—throughout the past, tobacco in one form or another has been a conversation piece and perhaps it always will be. These pages give some of the reasons why and show that its reputation as a soil destroyer is outmoded.*

FUNNY THING about tobacco is that when we look lazily back across the centuries through half-shut eyes we conjure it up in an atmosphere of glamor, romance, and unreality. The haze is pretty thick, but through it we seem to see many things such as solemn-faced Indians passing a ceremonial pipe from hand to hand, silver-buckled colonists, white sailed ships coming in to dock, a wealthy, leisurely plantation aristocracy based on the fragrant weed . . .

That the history of tobacco has its glamorous and romantic aspects cannot be denied. These are the more pleasant to contemplate, however, when viewed through rose-tinted glasses that filter out the heartbreaking struggles with overproduction, low prices, and marketing difficulties that have recurred throughout tobacco history in America, and the grinding toil always required to produce and sell a crop of tobacco. Scarcely had the first pole stockade at Jamestown rotted down when crude attempts were made to control production and bolster prices of tobacco. The long succession of such attempts by colonial laws might have been more successful had Virginia and Maryland been able to cooperate and to coordinate their efforts. Seems like every time the one tried to improve prices by choking off production, the other figured to cash in by raising a big crop. These colonists were singularly modern in some of their thinking.

Distant indeed are the days when tiny English sailing vessels poked their inquisitive prows annually into every southern bay, inlet, and navigable stream, seeking out plantation landings where they might sell English goods and load up with tobacco. The "tobacco fleet" became an established institution and injected rare interludes of excitement into the somnolent colonial life. And numerous are the ghost towns of later date whose reasons for existence were snuffed out in the evolution of more centralized marketing methods. Their place, like that of the tobacco fleet, now is in the romantic background of tobacco history.

Tobacco has been unjustly stigmatized as the great soil destroyer. True, in those early days before rotation, fertilization, and green manur-

ing were understood the thin Tidewater soils were soon exhausted. Constantly new land had to be cleared. With nothing but water to the east and nothing but forest to the west,—well? Tobacco might be given more credit for the westward march of empire. In Virginia tobacco culture moved out of the Tidewater and into the Piedmont, but before the process of moving had to be repeated, the agricultural reform came along. With it came such men as John Taylor and Edmund Ruffin, preaching a new gospel of diversified farming and enlightened soil management. Thus was tobacco production put on a more enduring basis.

Agitated reformers of the anti-tobacco variety have sprung up in all ages. Those of us who regard the late Hugh Johnson and some of his contemporaries in the field of controversy as masters of invective should read King James' thundering "Counterblaste to Tobacco." In that small document James not only established himself as the first great anti-tobacco agitator, but as one of the great masters of all time in the art of virulent, stinging denunciation. If his artistry and sovereign powers were insufficient to stem the incipient tobacco habit of his day, what chance has any subsequent reformer had?

Reversal

The present war has dramatized our seemingly illogical dependence on tobacco. More than ever we have come to realize its importance in maintaining morale, not only among our fighting forces but more generally. Perhaps I get a closer view of it than some, for to me come

ALL HANDS

Peace is everybody's business.

—Edward R. Stettinius

many of the wails of war workers and groups of people everywhere, who think they can't be efficient without more cigarettes, of cries that crews cannot be hired to man new ships unless supplies of tobacco can be assured, etc., etc. It isn't funny; on the contrary it is very real and quite serious. We are in a period of taut nerves, of constant urgings toward greater output, of doing without many things we would like to eat or drink, wear, or spend our money on. Tobacco is not only the great companion in contentment, it is solace in time of trouble. Millions turn to it for surcease from strain, worry, possibly even grief.

Warning

Aside from the psychological factors which now stimulate the craving for tobacco, the close correlation between industrial output and tobacco consumption affords its own reason for the extraordinary increase in tobacco consumption in the last 3 years. Also, it points a warning finger at possible decreases in consumption when the present frenzy of war production is over. There is food for thought in this for those who will guide agricultural policy in the post-war period. Consider it from the angle of cigarette consumption. Statistics of the past show conclusively that when employment is at a low level tobacco consumption is low. In boom times, tobacco consumption

rises correspondingly. But within this general movement two divergent trends stand out: in hard times fewer people smoke cigarettes and more people turn to the pipe; in boom times many pipe smokers turn to cigarettes and pipe smoking falls off. The two products occupy the opposite ends of a teeter board.

Unprecedented

During the last 3 years industrial activity in the United States has reached a stage absolutely without precedent, and civilian demand for cigarettes has risen accordingly. Coincidentally, several million young men have gone into the armed services and the Merchant Marine. Not only are they copiously supplied with cigarettes, but the exigencies of supplying them are such that vast quantities beyond their current smoking needs must at all times be afloat or in many supply centers behind the lines. Provision must be made also against sea and battle losses, and against pilferage. All this adds up to a national cigarette output that is staggering in size. Granting that peacetime industrial activity may be on a grand scale, it cannot reasonably be expected to employ as many workers as have been required for the war effort, nor to yield as high worker income. A diminution in cigarette requirements on this score seems inevitable, and also with respect to overseas requirements. If, as seems possible, the declaration of peace and wholesale cancellation of war contracts are accompanied by a period of relative idleness for reconverting industry to the manufacture of peacetime goods, the decline in cigarette consumption may be of serious proportions. I anticipate a considerable initial reduction, followed by a new era of expansion wherein cigarette consumption may eventually get back to its wartime proportions.

Revenue

In the meantime tobacco is contributing its share in revenue toward the war. Notwithstanding the great volume of tobacco products sent tax-free to the services abroad, the revenue from tobacco to the United States Government during the last fiscal year was close to a billion dollars. All governments have depended on this source of money. Even King James' aversion to tobacco may have been diluted, as time went on, by the gentle rain of customs and import duties pattering into his strongbox.

Weather Again

The weather is always doing something—attending strictly to business or getting up new designs and trying them on people.

—Mark Twain

Denmark—
LAND OF FAMILY FARMS

By ELIZABETH R. HOOKER. *After making a comprehensive study of agriculture and tenure in pre-war Denmark, this economist is convinced that post-war America could learn some lessons from experiences there.*

FARMERS of Denmark encountered two major emergencies between the beginning of the first World War and the invasion of 1940—first in the war years 1914–18, when Danish commerce was seriously interrupted, and again in the early 1930's, when the countries to which Denmark sent its butter and bacon raised barriers against imports. All emergencies were met promptly and successfully.

Between these two crises there was a period of "normal" conditions culminating in 1929. During this period well over 200,000 of the Danish agricultural holdings, or 99 percent of the total number, were operated by resident families. Together, these family farms occupied nine-tenths of the total agricultural area, and on them was raised a very large part of the national production of livestock. Besides achieving great efficiency in production, these farmers attained an enviable degree of success in marketing—attainments unsurpassed by our most highly organized commercial farms here in the United States.

At the end of World War II, farmers in the United States will face the necessity of making complex adjustments to changed conditions. The Danish experience may suggest to our farmers how some of their post-war problems may be solved.

The Danes had two kinds of family farms, larger ones here called farms, and smaller ones designated as small holdings. The *farms,* with their huge barns often surmounted by a windmill and their trim farmhouses with red-tile roofs, were a characteristic feature of the landscape. Numbering some 88,000, they occupied more than five-eighths of the agricultural area.

A few figures are necessary. Since nearly half of them ranged in size between 37 and 75 acres, and the number below this range was approximately equal to the number above it, Danish statistics for farms of the 37- to 75-acre size group will be taken as typical. The average farm of this group covered 54 acres. It was stocked with 18 head of cattle (including 9 cows), 20 pigs, 88 hens, and 3 or 4 horses. To raise feed for these animals, 20.5 acres of the land were in grain, 6 acres in roots, and 21.5 acres in meadow and pasture, leaving only 6 acres for buildings and garden, and for potatoes and all other crops. The unit was definitely not a subsistence homestead but a commercial farm.

All Help

Half the work on the place was performed by the farmer and his wife, and a son or daughter 15 years or over. Children who were still in school did some of the simpler chores. One or two year-round assistants were employed. Perhaps one was the son of another family farmer who came to live in the household and work on the farm to gain experience and accumulate savings in the hope of some day buying a farm of his own. In some cases a cattleman or a dairymaid was hired.

Farms larger or smaller than the range selected as typical were different only in the scale of their possessions and operations.

Scattered among these farms all over Denmark were more than 111,000 *small holdings*. Some had modern story-and-a-half houses and fair-sized barns; at the other extreme were little properties with thatched cottages and barns. Small holdings covered one-fourth of the farm area of Denmark. The more prosperous small holdings were typified by those of from 12½ to 25 acres. Of the 17 acres in the average holding of this group, 15 acres were devoted to raising feed for stock, leaving only 2 acres for buildings and all other purposes. The domestic animals consisted of 6 cattle (including 4 cows), 8 pigs, 61 hens, and 1 or 2 horses. Thus, on their smaller scale, the small holdings resembled the farms in that they were commercial enterprises.

Small holders spent all or most of their time in operating their holdings. The owner and members of his family usually did all the work. On about a third of the holdings the operator had the help of a son or daughter 15 years of age or over; almost invariably his wife helped him; and any children of school age did the weeding and the farm chores. But on one holding in five a year-round farm servant was employed, and on others temporary labor was hired for several days in the year.

Well over half the small holdings, however, covered less than 12½ acres and raised comparatively few animals. The occupiers commonly earned part of the family living through work in other men's fields, or through fishing or other employment. Their great ambition was to acquire larger places on which they could work full time and earn all the family living.

Ownership

Possession of title to the property was the form of tenure for a large proportion of the farms and small holdings. Under a law of 1919, ownership was fast superseding the surviving vestiges of tenancy. A class of small holders instituted by a law of 1919, however, occupied pieces of land belonging to the State. Because the tenure conditions were very secure and because the occupiers held actual title to their buildings, livestock, and equipment, this form of tenure, in a law of 1934, was classified under ownership.

A Danish family farmer had several reasons for wishing to own his place. He needed absolute security of tenure if he was to risk the large expenditures necessitated by the climate and soil, and by his specialized production to meet the demands of foreign markets. Again, he craved the freedom and independence characteristic of ownership, and the

general respect which in Danish country districts is accorded only to owners of the land cultivated. Most important of all, the family farmer regarded his property as primarily a home for himself and his wife and children. Sales of farm property were rare. As a rule, each household was rooted in the fields of the family farm.

Efficiency

Continuous ownership of neighboring farms by much the same group of families naturally meant friendly local relationships. Farmhouses were near together. There were no serious topographical barriers. Good roads, bridges, and ferries, with horses, bicycles, automobiles, and buses, made communication easy. Besides, the country people were unusually homogeneous. All but one in 79 were native born, and all but one in 50 were connected with the Evangelical Lutheran Church. As owners of farm properties, large or small, they felt themselves to be members of the same social class, and they had common interests and similar problems. All had received a sound elementary education. A series of advanced schools, originated by the country people themselves, developed strong and well-informed rural leadership.

Common desire for knowledge of the latest discoveries in the agricultural sciences has long since resulted in the formation of societies of farmers and of small holders. Special groups connected with these societies hired experts to teach their members efficient methods of production and means of adapting their products to the demands of the export trade. Each local society conducted its own affairs. To perform services impossible for local groups, the societies formed representative regional and national bodies.

Cooperation

Danish family farmers engaged in business together. Through mutual credit associations they obtained loans safely, cheaply, and on convenient terms. Through consumers' societies they bought economically supplies and equipment of good quality for their farms and their homes. By means of various forms of mutual insurance they took precautions against loss as a result of hail, flood, and the death of domestic animals; and for many years they made provision for the expenses of illness and burial through similar mutual agencies.

Because as individual farmers they could not produce the uniform, high-grade butter and bacon demanded for the export trade, they formed cooperatives to contract loans on their combined credit and to erect and operate creameries and bacon-packing plants. In our representative size groups, more than nine-tenths of the farmers and nearly nine-tenths of the small holders were members of cooperative creameries; and three-fourths of the farmers and more than seven-tenths of the small holders were members of cooperative bacon-packing plants. Each local cooperative ran its own business.

Federation

For common purposes they formed regional and national bodies; and the national federations had combined with the Federation of Farmers' Societies to form an Agricultural Council representing all

agricultural interests. Thus, the family farmers had come to possess collective opinions on agricultural affairs and had developed machinery for making these opinions effective.

Political Action

Neither the farmers singly nor their agencies could attain all their objectives without the backing of the State. For example, they realized, about 1890, that they could not protect the reputation of their products abroad from being damaged by poor goods offered as Danish by careless or unscrupulous exporters. The farmers wanted legal standards, enforced through official inspections, with penalties for infringement. Of the 168 members of the Danish Parliament in the year 1890–91, 47 were farmers and 8 were small holders. After 20 years of work by these representatives, a special Butter Trademark Society, and the farmers' national bodies, the desired legislation was enacted in 1906 and 1911. Later, less time and effort were required to pass laws desired by farmers; for the export of agricultural products has come to be recognized as the basis of the national economy.

Family farmers have long supported legislation for the establishment of small holdings. In 1933 they took part in enacting comprehensive social security legislation, into which were incorporated their long-tested mutual arrangements for financing illness and burial. Legislation was also employed in meeting the great emergencies between 1914 and 1940.

Consequence

The preponderance of family farms conditioned in various ways the economic, social, and political situation of the whole country. In the economic field, several effects of their influence were evident. Because family farms raised more cows, pigs, and hens per acre than did larger agricultural properties, the national production was greater than it would have been had the land been held in large estates. Through their agencies they improved the quality of the products exported. Ranging in size as they did from tiny holdings to farms of 250 acres or more, the family farms constituted a genuine agricultural ladder. More than 200,000 prosperous country households afforded a market for goods and services to workers of many other occupations.

Family farmers contributed actively to the social well-being. Because they constituted a stable and contented rural population, contemporary Denmark experienced no alarming migration away from the country districts either to the towns or to foreign lands. As landless agricultural laborers were few, and a thrifty farm worker could readily obtain a small holding with governmental help, agricultural laborers did not form, as in some countries, a hotbed of discontent. Moreover, the reservoir of population, for which all peoples look to their country districts, was in Denmark composed of sound and intelligent persons, industrious, moral, and self-respecting.

In the realm of politics family farmers made themselves felt through their contagious democratic spirit. Whenever feasible, they exerted their influence in favor of the administration of affairs by private individuals or agencies. When State control seemed necessary, the family farmers sponsored measures that

were conducive to rural and national prosperity, and stood—especially the small holders—for the defense of the economically weaker classes both in the country and in the towns. Prosperous, contented family farmers have protected Denmark from the agrarian unrest, with actual or threatened revolution, which in our day has imperiled the countries of Eastern Europe. Intelligent, articulate family farmers, organized to seek common objectives, and accustomed to political activity, render it impossible for the native government of Denmark to be other than democratic. When their land has been freed from German domination, these family farmers doubtless will again, as many times in the past, restore prosperity for themselves and for their Nation.

Books

THE T.V.A.: LESSONS FOR INTERNATIONAL APPLICATION. By *HERMAN FINER*. International Labour Office. Montreal, Canada, 289 pages.

"THE VITAL question, to which the Tennessee Valley Authority attempts an answer, is whether an industrious and capable people, though settled in a region which contains substantial natural resources, must continue to endure a low living standard." In the light of this objective, the author portrays the work of T. V. A. and its international possibilities.

Views of public men and proposals for developmental "authorities" in various parts of the world are given as evidence of international interest in T. V. A., established by Congress in 1933, at a time of economic distress "when governments were taking the desperate course of restricting production and destroying produce in the hope of restoring economic welfare." The T. V. A. "represented an altogether different conception . . . : that of enterprise on a large scale, deliberately undertaken by the public authorities, . . . an econmic policy of hope and expansion . . . ." That the implementation of this concept is a proper function of Government, he supports on the ground of broad social objectives, and on the authority of time-honored doctrine—Adam Smith's "third duty" of the sovereign:

". . . the duty of erecting and maintaining certain public works and certain public institutions, which it can never be for the interest of any individual or small number of individuals to erect and maintain; because the profit could never repay the expense to any individual or small number of individuals, though it may frequently do much more than repay it to a great society."—*The Wealth of Nations,* Book IV, Chapter IX.

The preface gives the author's favorable conclusions on T. V. A. itself. The reader is not left in doubt as to where the book will lead in

reference to the application of the T. V. A. principle "in lands of undeveloped economy, aided where necessary by an international body." The author finds that T. V. A. has set a high example of administrative organization and procedure.

All but one of the 14 chapters deal with the T. V. A. itself—the factors that led to its establishment, the making and sale of electric power, flood control, land use, organization and operation, personnel management, Federal and State relationships, labor policy, financing, and other topics. The last chapter, "The Problem of an International T. V. A.," is definitely international in contents. The Appendices include statistical tables, data on mineral resources, costs and profits, interstate compacts and the T. V. A. Act.

The first 13 chapters contain much useful information for anyone who would acquire a general view of T. V. A. and its work. The material, presented by an avowed friend of T. V. A., gives the distinct impression of a competent, fair-minded appraisal of the numerous activities by which this "multi-purpose" Authority pursued its task of integrated development of the Tennessee Valley comprising 40,600 square miles and including portions of seven States. The author emphasizes the advantage, to the Authority, of being able "to draw on the accumulated knowledge, experience and educated personnel of public and private enterprise and all the institutions of research and training."

EMPHASIZING the difficulty of specific evaluation of the economic and social results of T. V. A., the author proceeds with surefooted caution in applying his findings to the international field, recognizing that "no demonstration model can be regarded as suitable for adoption in every identical feature by other countries, or even in other areas of the same country, . . . The T. V. A. is not transplantable without reservations and qualifications; its characteristics merely help to bring out the problems and to suggest alternative solutions." He suggests possibilities for integrated developmental work in other countries under international auspices.

An area of development, he insists, not necessarily confined to particular "valleys", must be surveyed to determine its resources, "the key to the character of the area," for "the problem involved is the relationship between such a region and the national or world economy of which it is a part." Specific planning in the sense of both engineering and social science, is strongly urged, with a clear showing of the responsibility of each participating country.

In applying these notes of caution to international "development authorities," their social service objectives, financing, organization, etc., the author offers, in this reviewer's opinion, a significant contribution. Nowhere does the author advance "T. V. A." as a panacea for social and economic ills or as a means of crowding private enterprise into the background. On the contrary, he sees in such developmental work an enlarged opportunity for private enterprise through "public supplements to private investment," expansion of employment and business activity, and international collaboration on common problems of development.

—*Eric Englund*

THE RECONSTRUCTION OF WORLD AGRICULTURE. By *KARL BRANDT*. W. W. Norton and Co., Inc. New York. 416 pages.

READERS will naturally expect to find in this book a program for postwar agricultural reconstruction throughout the world. Some specific proposals for the future are offered, but the chief value of the book probably lies in the competent summarization and appraisal of a vast store of information on agricultural trends, beginning with World War I, drawn from the author's rich background of experience in this province, and from many other sources, notably the Food Research Institute and the U. S. Department of Agriculture.

Dr. Brandt, who was director of the German Institute of Agricultural Market Research and a member of the staff of the University of Berlin until he began his academic work in the United States some 13 years ago, believes that the condition of European agriculture itself when the shooting is over will not be nearly so much impaired as is popularly supposed, and he cites many reasons for this belief. He thinks that recovery of production will be somewhat delayed because of the destruction of factories that turn out farm tools and machinery and the deterioration of transportation, and he recognizes the danger of internal strife in countries torn by war. But he believes that:

"Nothing could be more advisable for those who have to shape the production and export policy for American agriculture during the postwar years than to ascertain with a candid eye what the actual condition of European agriculture is, and what will be its prospective output of specific commodities as soon as the Continent is thrown open for such *prima facie* investigation."

Easing trade barriers to achieve "the beneficial effects of international trade on the basis of comparative advantage and competitive price" is a keystone in the reconstruction as outlined by the author. Apparently he believes that the "sealed compartments" imposed upon agriculture by the widespread restrictions on trade in the period between the two wars were more detrimental to agricultural prosperity than the direct destruction and depletion through war will be.

Naturally the attention of both author and reader concentrates frequently upon Central Europe. This is the area of Dr. Brandt's specialization, and he is forthright in stating his views regarding many matters of economic import there. They include the landed estates and their political implications, reparations in kind, "de-industrialization" of Germany, the "indefatigable politician in the cloak of a banker"—Dr. Schacht, economic nationalism, Nazi policies in regard to food and agriculture, and World War II in the German storm center. The incidental defects in assertion or reasoning are readily overlooked in view of the forthrightness of the author's statement on controversial themes, and the value of his summarization of much material of immediate and future interest.

—*Eric Englund*

WHEN WE'RE GREEN WE GROW. By *JANE SIMPSON McKIMMON.* The University of North Carolina Press. Chapel Hill. 353 pages.

THIS story of home demonstration work in North Carolina does a job which has needed to be done. Easy to read and accurate in detail, the book tells of the establishment and development of a type of adult education for rural women which has steadily grown in size and in scope for more than 30 years.

Mrs. McKimmon is well fitted to tell this story, in both experience and ability. One of the first women appointed as home demonstration worker, she has taken part in its development from the first early tomato and canning clubs to the present home demonstration clubs with their comprehensive programs on everything touching the welfare of the home and the community. During the years, she was at the helm in North Carolina she lived the experiences of her agents as they undertook a new line of work or overcame some new obstacle to better living in rural homes.

IT is really the rural women themselves who tell the story and Mrs. McKimmon who reports it. Through the years she has collected a wealth of stories of what women and girls have accomplished when given some encouragement and help through their home demonstration agent. These women speak through the pages of the book—they tell of their problems and how they found a way to meet them—by getting a milk goat so the family could have the milk so much needed by some member of the family, by making a little extra money for needed repairs or wanted beauty through selling on the home demonstration market, by finding ways to satisfy their economic, social, and spiritual needs.

The feeling which Mrs. McKimmon has for the rural women of her State permeates every chapter. She is sensitive to the difficulties of their lives and has thought more of their problems than of trying to teach any particular thing. Each new demonstration added to an agent's program was the result of some need forcefully brought to her attention through her close association with rural homes. To meet the needs, the intensive canning program developed into a home food-supply demonstration with the garden, the cow, and the hen entering the picture. The women wanted to be better dressed, wanted training that would make them at home in a city group, wanted more convenient and beautiful homes; they wanted books and libraries, recreational opportunities for their children, and many more things.

CERTAIN chapters are devoted to the first World War, to the depression, and to the development of home demonstration work among North Carolina's Negro women and girls.

Though not a complete history of the home demonstration movement, Mrs. McKimmon has done what she set out to do—"write this human story of farm women and girls in action"—and it is a valuable contribution to the literature of a movement which has enrolled nearly a million and half rural women.

—*Clara Bailey*

I SPEAK FOR JOE DOAKES: FOR COOPERATION AT HOME AND AMONG NATIONS. By *ROY F. BERGENGREN*. Harper & Brothers, New York. 167 pages.

COOPERATIVE COMMUNITIES AT WORK. By *HENRIK F. INFIELD*. The Dryden Press, New York. 201 pages.

HERE are two books which utilize the cooperative theme, though in different vein. Mr. Bergengren, making the case for Joe Doakes, the inarticulate common man, pleads urgently for more cooperation in America and among nations to safeguard democracy and make it work. Dr. Infield records the history of cooperative farm communities here and abroad, and appraises them as they may provide patterns for postwar resettlement schemes. Hence, the two books are quite different in character and content.

Mr. Bergengren has been managing director of the Credit Union National Association for many years, working closely with the folks who fall in the category of the "common people." He draws on this experience to size up the potentialities of the cooperative technique in improving the economic position of the many Joe Doakeses of the world. He writes simply but effectively in everyday language, utilizing short snappy sentences and paragraphs.

In these words he voices his fears for the future—fears grounded on developments after World War I: "In the great surge of relief that the war is over will come forgetfulness of our one and only objective"—permanent world peace. "To win a war and then to waste the fruit of victory—that is defeat indeed." He holds out no hopes for a *perfect* world organization, citing the experiences of America's union of States in law-making: "Some of these laws will be good and some will seem irksome and some will be silly," and yet constitutional government survives.

This author is convinced that "we must change our thinking about economics if we would assure peace." He urges cooperation because it "makes for a spread . . . while capitalism makes for the consolidation of wealth." He is critical of rugged individualism—capitalism without adequate competition from some other economic system—as the sort of thing which creates the myth of a master race. His concept of a sound economic structure is "a reformed capitalism dedicated to the service of man, in fair competition with a rapidly developing and efficient cooperative system . . . with government the disinterested third party . . ."

In supporting his case for cooperation as the tool of the common man, Mr. Bergengren cites the effective role of the credit union in driving out usurious money lending with its system of cooperative credit. He calls attention to the progress of cooperative purchasing associations. Readers may wonder why no mention is made of cooperative marketing as well.

The book is a worth-while addition to the bumper crop of current literature dealing with economic planning for the post-war period, although in it no emphasis is given to planning as such. It does do something which is lacking or given little

space in the other current books—it offers cooperation as a tried technique useful to the Joe Doakes of the world.

Dr. Infield, author of Cooperative Communities at Work, is executive director of the Rural Settlement Institute, and has had intimate knowledge of and close touch with cooperative settlements where productive activities are carried on cooperatively, jobs being parceled out by a manager or operating committee, minimum living costs being assured by the community, and profits of the enterprises being distributed among members, usually on some differential basis. He classifies the motivating forces as either religious or socio-reformistic. Many of the latter type—the Mexican *Ejidos,* the Soviet *Kolkhovy,* the Palestine *Kvutnot*—have developed under government sponsorship or encouragement. He also discusses settlements that are under the direction of the Farm Security Administration.

He sees ahead in the postwar world a serious problem of resettling and rehabilitating veterans and war refugees. Does the cooperative community offer a way out for many of them or for even the carefully selected few? This is the question he poses for himself. He approaches his subject sympathetically—perhaps too much so, in the opinion of some readers. He analyzes his subject largely in sociological terms—an approach which makes his book definitely on the heavy side for lay readers. Nevertheless, it should be required reading for those who are playing with the idea of cooperative communities. His comprehensive review of the settlement projects of the past and present should bring some degree of realism into the readers' thinking—and perhaps temper their enthusiasm.

Anticipating the possible necessity of controlled mass relocation of groups of people, the author devotes the closing chapters to problems of administrative planning for resettlement communities. Such matters as administrative organization and the financing and supervision of projects are outlined, giving consideration to lessons learned from past successes and failures. Some readers may question seriously whether experiences to date full justify the author's apparent conclusions as to possibilities. In any case, the descriptive portions of the book are informative, and can provide useful background for those concerned with the welfare of underprivileged groups.

—*Harold Hedges*

And the land shall not be sold in perpetuity; for the land is mine; for ye are strangers and sojourners with me.

—Lev. 25, 23

COUNTRY PLANNING; A STUDY OF RURAL PROBLEMS. By *AGRICULTURAL ECONOMICS RESEARCH INSTITUTE,* Oxford. Oxford University Press. London. 288 pages. (Maps, photographs, and charts.)

IF AGRICULTURAL reconstruction is to take place on a sound basis, information is needed that will throw light upon the social phases of rural life and labor, as well as the economic. On this hypothesis, strikingly similar to that frequently enunciated by State planning boards in the United States, a pilot survey was made by Oxford University's Agricultural Economics Research Institute of the economic and social conditions in a rural area in the Midlands of England. This book presents a summary of the findings, including consideration of agricultural efficiency, housing, rural administration, education, health, and recreation.

The facts are convincing evidence that the problems of British agriculture are closely interrelated to the problems of the Nation. There has been since 1881 a steady decline of population in the survey area and a shift of farm workers from agriculture to industry in adjacent districts. Many rural industries have succumbed as a result of farm mechanization and urban competition. Participation in the rural government and social activities is largely by the older people. The young folks in the smaller villages lack leadership, and those who have gone to school in a nearby town, or who commute to jobs in the industrial centers, find the local matters of little interest. Agriculture accounts for less than 31 percent of the employed population.

The problem of making the countryside into a healthy and prosperous part of the social and economic life involves the coordination of village and industrial planning, and development of an agricultural industry in which the real incomes of workers will provide improved rural living standards.

Among the bulk of urban people a standard of living has been established which agriculture, as now organized, cannot offer. There are only two ways, the survey suggests, by which the difference can be adjusted. The first involves a program for more economic production, such as enlarging the size and improving the lay-out of fields and farms, making possible greater and more efficient use of machinery, producing products which the population needs most and which the country is best fitted by soil and climate to produce. The authors believe that the financial, educational, and other problems involved in such a plan can be solved.

The second alternative is government subsidies to farm labor, direct or indirect, which according to the survey committee might stabilize farm-labor numbers but could not be expected to reconstitute the country society satisfactorily.

The greatest problem in the area, apparently, is the impoverishment and stagnation of life in the villages. As a solution the report suggests that new or decentralized lighter industries might be established in the rural districts so that villages within the radius of an industry would supply the workers. Some of the smaller villages should be allowed to pass out of existence as centers of social

activity, but the larger ones would contain, in addition to farm families, residents employed in nonagricultural pursuits. Thus the population numbers would justify improvements in public services and could support the recreational and other organizations that are essential to a socially healthy community.

The report suggests that the influx of industry would have a profoundly beneficial effect on the agricultural economy. A great expansion would be expected in the demand for fresh dairy products, meat, eggs and poultry, vegetables and fruit. "Farmers and farm workers in many districts, who are restricted, now, to extensive systems of husbandry, based on corn [wheat] production in competition with the cheap producers of all the world, would find themselves on the threshold of a new era of opportunity and advancement as the market in more profitable products, protected naturally, many of them, by their perishability, opened up around them."

The results of the survey and the suggestions for improvement of rural life are well organized. Besides making an inevitable appeal to a wide group of readers in the fields of social and economic relations, the study comes to close grips with the problem of the role which agriculture will be called upon to play in post-war British economy.

—*Montell Ogdon*

TOWN MEETING COUNTRY. By *CLARENCE M. WEBSTER.* Duell, Sloan & Pearce. New York. 246 pages. (American Folkways series.)

THIS STUDY of a typically New England form of community government was made in a hilly little region that includes roughly the eastern quarter of Connecticut, the western third of Rhode Island, and a bit of Massachusetts to the north. The material which the author has skillfully brought together shows that in this corner of New England the town meeting had adapted itself to the changes of three hundred years and is still a vital force.

When the first white settlers came through the forests from Puritan Massachusetts they started their new homes on much the same general plan as the old. In each settlement the properly God-fearing and law-abiding met frequently to discuss and decide affairs of common interest, from the allotment of land to the regulation of church attendance. They chose selectmen to whom they entrusted such duties as preserving order, admonishing and punishing offenders, dispensing charity, and administering the funds the town meeting voted for the common welfare and protection. Apparently they believed the functions of this local government were to protect individuals in their just efforts to get on in their new surroundings, to maintain the religious, moral, and social standards of the majority, and to see that each bore his due share of responsibility and cost.

Almost trackless forests between the settlements and the centers of colonial administration left the settlements free from interference in

local affairs, and threw them on their own resources for defense against their Indian neighbors. Later they united in protective action throughout the region—a story that includes some of the most thrilling incidents of Indian warfare in New England. Mr. Webster, a descendant of original settlers, has evidently enjoyed digging into little-known records and folklore, and his chapters on the early history are fascinating reading. He makes it clear how the early ideas of personal independence, ambition, and a sense of sharing the responsibilities of the community have combined with the physical characteristics of the country to produce the life we see there today.

Economically the area, except for the city of New London, is now a bit of a backwater. The nature of the land rules out large-scale agriculture. Fisheries and boat-building along the Sound have mostly disappeared. The granite quarries are no longer very important. Small factories along the streams have tended to peter out.

But the social life is not stagnant. The people are up-to-date in their concern for education, for farm, community, and home improvements, for State and national political issues. At the same time they maintain their love of personal and community independence and of neighborly control of whatever militates against their idea of the good way of life. This last shows in their tolerant but not too receptive attitude toward the city families who are attracted to the country by its natural beauty and old-time charm.

Though the complexities of modern life have made it necessary to turn over some of the functions of the town meeting to special officers, the meeting is still held at least once a year and is the scene of genuinely democratic discussion and action on plans for community, welfare, progress, and expenditure.

As this brief review is written, the newspapers are full of the chaotic breakdown of local government in Germany. More than ever we realize what such traditions as those of the town meeting mean to democracy and we are grateful for this timely description of the way in which it exemplifies "the basic principles of just and democratic government."

—*Helen W. Atwater*

Agriculture seems to possess an incontestable right to the title of parent and nurse of all other professions. Observe a country where agriculture flourishes, and you will behold arts and sciences flourish in equal perfection.

—Socrates

NAMES ON THE LAND: AN HISTORICAL ACCOUNT OF PLACE NAMING IN THE UNITED STATES. By *GEORGE R. STEWART*. Random House. New York. 418 pages.

PLACE NAMES are so closely interwoven into our language, our traditions, and our ways of thought as to usually go unnoticed. We do on occasion ask some question about a particular name, but as a rule the names of our bays and capes and islands and creeks and rivers and mountains, the names of our small towns and cities and counties and States, of our roads and streets and ranches and plantations are words or names which come so easily to mind as to seem natural.

Stewart's *Names on the Land* is an endeavor to examine these several million place names which we so easily accept and give an account of their historical growth. This approach has one great advantage: it allows the author to show clearly that American place names are closely correlated with the four centuries of American history stretching from the first European naming in 1513 to some time after 1900, that our place names not only sum up the names and events which we all accept as memorable but also much of the culture and background of the common people who did most to create and maintain the Nation itself.

Stewart's goal seems to have been a popular book and this choice also dictated the historical approach. The author's endeavor to summarize the great mass of scientific and semi-scientific material relating to American place names could, of course, have been organized around some other approach. Some readers certainly will wish that several chapters could have been devoted to the discussion of the derivation and classification of place names along non-historical lines, even though a fair approach to such a generalized discussion is supplied by supplementary sentences and sections scattered throughout the text.

But the author started out to write an historical account of place naming in the United States and once well started, the book is interesting reading indeed. The reviewer recommends it to those who are interested in the American tradition and its background, or in derivations, or the way in which the great stream of American place names gradually became both more and less English, or in obtaining some basis of separating fact from fiction as they listen to local stories about this name or that.

—*O. V. Wells*

U. S. GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE: 1945

Today as we move against the terrible scourge of war—as we go forward toward the greatest contribution that any generation of human beings can make in this world—the contribution of lasting peace, I ask you to keep up your faith. I measure the sound, solid achievement that can be made at this time by the straight edge of your own confidence and your resolve. And to you, and to all Americans who dedicate themselves with us to the making of an abiding peace, I say:

The only limit to our realization of tomorrow will be our doubts of today. Let us move forward with strong and active faith.

—Franklin Delano Roosevelt

In April 1945

Land policy REVIEW

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UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE
BUREAU OF AGRICULTURAL ECONOMICS

Contributors

Editorial Note: RURAL YOUNG PEOPLE both in and out of the armed forces will inherit tough and persistent problems. Can we prepare them better for wrestling with the solutions? This question gains urgency as the normal school year opens.

ARTHUR RAPER is a social science analyst in BAE and the author of two books—*Preface to Peasantry* and *Tenants of the Almighty.*

SHERMAN JOHNSON, in spite of being deep in his work as Head of the Division of Farm Management and Costs of the BAE and National Activity Leader in problems relating to production adjustments, takes time to make some vigorous recommendations in regard to our rural schools.

CHARL ORMOND WILLIAMS, originally a dynamic rural teacher and now Director of Field Service, National Education Association, has held virtually every office in that organization, including the Presidency. She has also been chairman of two White House Conferences.

DAVID MEEKER has since resigned as Director, Office of Surplus Property and Reconversion, USDA.

W. F. WATKINS was Chairman of the Committee on Fertilizers, Combined Food Board and Combined Raw Materials Board, WFA, until July 1, when he left for Shrivenham, England, where he is Agronomy Instructor at Army University Study Center No. 1.

BRISTOW ADAMS, who is known across the country as *B.A.* and may be called the dean of agricultural college editors and teachers of journalism, was recently designated as Professor Emeritus at Cornell University.

LEON WOLCOTT is joint author with JOHN M. GAUS *of Public Administration and the United States Department of Agriculture;* ESTHER F. PHIPARD, food economist in the Bureau of Human Nutrition and Home Economics, is National Activity Leader in Nutrition, Interbureau Committee on Postwar Programs; C. E. RANDALL is in the Division of Information and Education, Forest Service. The other reviewers are in BAE: MARGARET JARMAN HAGOOD, author of *Statistics for Sociologists,* and EDGAR A. SCHULER and EARL H. BELL are social scientists, GUS LARSON and CATHERINE C. CARMODY are Information Specialists, and O. C. STINE is Head of the Division of Statistical and Historical Research.

The REVIEW rejoices that many phrases in this issue have been made obsolete by the termination of the war.

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What Farmers Want from their *Rural Schools*

By ARTHUR RAPER. *Here is a summary of a field study by trained social scientists in 32 representative counties merged with some observations by the author.*

THERE ARE stirrings among the farmers as they think of their schools. Almost nowhere are they wholly satisfied, or wholly dissatisfied, with what they now have. Where schools are small, there are nearly always those who want them consolidated into larger units; where they have been consolidated, some farmers lament the decline of neighborhood activities that followed the closing of the one-teacher schools.

Rural schools are responsive to certain local conditions. They vary with taxable wealth, with types of administration, and perhaps most of all with the divergent ideas of the farmers themselves about what they want from their schools.

The very fact that farmers want the schools above all else to train their children for life causes diversity rather than uniformity among rural schools. Most farmers in some areas, and some farmers in almost any local district, want the schools to prepare their boys and girls to live on farms, or at least not to educate them away from the farms. Other farmers want the schools to help train their children to make a living off the farm, if necessary. Some parents, especially transient farm laborers and lower-income cotton tenants, are generally expected to have their children work in the peak seasons. The parents may simply take them out of school, or the schools may arrange split sessions so the children will be available when their work is needed.

But most numerous in nearly all parts of the country are the parents who want the schools to help prepare their children to choose between farm life and off-the-farm life, and if for life off the farm then for a considerable range of livelihood choices. Rural parents are well aware that many of the young people who grow up on farms must move off to the urban centers, and so they want the schools to help prepare them for this strange new life away from home.

Professions stand high among practically all farm people, and many parents hope that at least some of their children will become lawyers, doctors, preachers, or teachers. Broadly speaking, immigrant farm parents most want their children to remain on the farm, while old-line American parents are most anxious that their children have at least the basic training for a wide range of occupations.

Repair Shops

Community services from their rural schools are wanted by farmers generally. This wish is widespread, though it is most marked in low-income farm areas. The launching shortly before the war of the National Defense Training courses in areas long characterized by much underemployment demonstrated to parents there just how the schools could contribute toward widening the occupational opportunities for their children.

When representative farmers in 32 scattered counties throughout the country were asked some months ago whether they wanted farm-machinery repair shops at schools after the war, two-thirds of them said they did. The largest proportions wanting such shops lived in the South where farm machinery is lightest, where the most defense training courses had been given, and where the most repair shops at schools had been set up. In the Northern Plains and the West Coast fewer farmers wanted them, for there the machinery is heavier, defense training courses and school shops were fewer, and experienced mechanics are plentiful, except in wartime. Even so, in every major region half or more of the farmers wanted the schools to maintain farm-machinery repair shops after the war.

Farmers not in favor of the school shops sometimes said the school was too small, or the shop equipment was too expensive, or that "stingy farmers would use them too much," or that they offered unfair competition to private industry, especially local repairmen. A few farmers bluntly said they didn't see any sense in "kids monkeying around" with tractors, that there was no need for a repair shop at school. Most farmers, however, like the idea of as many boys as possible—and girls too in many places—getting acquainted with tractors and other farm machinery. Some wanted the school shops even though they themselves do not expect to make use of them. In such areas as the Plains, where tractor drivers and combine operators are recruited from the towns, many farmers would like to see farm-machinery repair shops at the town schools, too.

Farmers who have used the school repair shops speak of their satisfaction in getting a better understanding of their own equipment, and of knowing that they can mend it. Some said they have their machinery in better repair now than ever before. That father and son can work together in the school shop was often appreciated.

Canneries

Schools should operate canneries after the war for the convenience of farm families, said more than half of the farmers interviewed. Replies differed widely by regions—85 percent of the Southern farmers said they wanted them, in the Midwest

and West Coast slightly less than one-third, in New England only one-fourth. This larger proportion of Southern farmers seems to be accounted for mainly by the relative absence of commercial canneries in the area, the low traditional emphasis on home canning there with the resulting dearth of home-canning equipment, and the installation of more wartime school canneries in the South than in any other part of the country. Southern farmers and their families have used the canneries, they like them, and they want them made permanent to stabilize the increase in home-grown foods achieved during the war.

Competition with private industry was often offered as an objection to school canneries, especially in the Northeast and West Coast vegetable-growing areas where commercial custom canneries operate. There was less mention of this competition, however, than in the case of the school repair shops. Most States have made some arrangements for the continuation of school canneries and repair shops.

Hot Lunches

Four farmers out of five said they wanted the hot-lunch program continued in the schools after the war. The highest proportion saying Yes was in the South, and in every region it was well over half. A few said they preferred to have their children take lunches from home, and some thought that the local school was too small for the lunch program to be practicable. But the vast majority wanted hot lunches served permanently. They pointed out that every child would then be assured of at least one good meal a day, that it was less trouble than to send lunch from home, and that it was the best way for the children to have a wholesome meal when at school. Most farmers believe that hot lunches are here to stay. At least 21 States now have special funds from State sources to facilitate school lunches.

Survival

Any order which hopes to survive must ultimately appeal to the minds of men.

—Harry S. Truman

Libraries

School libraries are generally popular. Two-thirds of the farmers said they would like to have a school library and to have it expanded to serve the adults in the school district. Practically all who had access to the larger schools wanted this expansion, as did many in the one-teacher districts, though they often said that their schools were now too small to make this feasible. A few farmers expressed opposition because of the added expense, or were afraid the "right kind of books" would not be used, and now and then a man insisted that most farm people have precious little time to read books and are not much interested anyway.

Buildings Open

School buildings should be available for community activities after hours, according to four-fifths of the farmers. Many, however, pointed out that special care would be needed

to protect the school property, and that the building should be used only for activities that are open to all the people in the school district.

And—

Farmers nearly everywhere apparently support the health activities in the schools. They encourage their children to participate in 4–H Club and F. F. A. projects, and like especially the work of the vocational teachers. Art and music courses are appreciated nearly everywhere they are given, according to these responses. The school plays attract large night audiences, and many people leave their work for field days, ball games, and commencements.

Their Own Schools

Farmers want the rural schools to be their own, their very own. They want to keep up with what goes on, know their child's teacher personally, and be able to have their wishes count in rehiring her if she suits, or replacing her if she does not. Next after their own homes, farmers are likely to look upon the school as their most basic social institution. Having a part in the operation and control of the public schools is for many rural parents their own best evidence that they live in a democracy.

But most farmers also want the schools to render community services that can be provided only by larger school units, which by their very size and distance reduce the direct control by the individual farm family. Many are conscious of this paradox. Two-thirds of the farmers interviewed in the 32 counties and half or more in every major region said they favor the further consolidation of schools. There was a rather close correspondence between the present degree of consolidation and the proportion of the farmers favoring it. The exception was found among the Southern Negroes who, with little personal experience with consolidation but with first-hand observation of the local white consolidated schools, almost unanimously favored it.

Farmers who oppose consolidation do so mainly because they look upon the local one- and two-teacher school as the core of their cherished neighborhood activities. "When you close a district school" said a farmer, "you give that community a slap in the face." But most farmers think the objections on the whole are outweighed by the better educational advantages for their children and the additional services for the rural community. The real challenge the farmers now face is to help the school authorities to establish the kind of rural schools that render the educational and community services they want, and that at the same time are reasonably responsive to their wishes for democratic community control.

Seedbed

The public school system is the agency through which the democratic state undertakes to perpetuate itself.

—Lister Hill

Training Rural Youth for *Farm* and *Other Occupations*

By SHERMAN JOHNSON. *This statement is a layman's view of the need for reorienting the training of rural youth with suggestions as to methods. It is a spontaneous expression of fermenting thought and observation.*

MANY returning war veterans, workers in war industry, and rural youth are considering farming as a vocation. This current interest in farming as a life occupation underlines the need for greater understanding of at least four phases of future agricultural life. They are summarized as (1) the potential opportunities in farming over a period of years, (2) the number of workers likely to be needed in agriculture after the war, (3) the training and background that is almost essential for successful management of a family farm, and (4) the kind of training needed by those who will find it desirable to seek employment outside of agriculture.

We should not expect most of our rural youth to stay on farms. This is the inescapable conclusion to be drawn from the technological advances in agriculture, the increasingly competitive nature of farming, the relatively high rural birth rate, the outlook for markets for agricultural products which are always more circumscribed than the markets for industrial production, and the future employment opportunities in agriculture. A large portion of these young people should be encouraged to seek other kinds of work. Of those not brought up on farms only the very few who have special aptitudes for farming should be encouraged to consider it as a life occupation.

This raises the question of the kind of training that should be provided to guide rural youth into occupations for which they have special aptitudes—training that will serve as the basis for choice, and that will be most helpful in entering the kind of vocations for which they are best adapted. But training by itself is not effective. It needs to be combined with guidance into the occupations that have the most promising employment outlook, and eventually with assistance in finding employment or business opportunities. The training step seems to be so neglected in discussions of agricultural policy that the following remarks are ventured in the hope that they will create interest in this fundamental question.

First of all, it is assumed that public responsibility for training rural youth extends at least sufficiently far to provide opportunities for a high-school education. This means considerable extension of present educational facilities in many parts of

the country. One of the reasons for population pressure in the isolated, poor-land areas is lack of the kind of educational opportunity which should provide training for other lines of work, and a knowledge of potential jobs in other parts of the country. Good roads and good schools can furnish avenues of escape from congested, low-income farming areas.

Revamped Courses

But high schools organized on the traditional pattern will not adequately train our youth to choose the occupations for which they are best adapted. In a new approach, perhaps the first 2 years of high-school training could be organized somewhat along traditional lines. Then the last 2 years could be revamped to bring out special aptitudes of the students, and these 2 years could be speeded up to cover as much work in a 6-month term as is now covered in the 9-month term. This would leave 6 months open for apprenticeship training in certain occupations, with compensation in accordance with student contribution to output. These would be trial apprenticeships in the sense that students would have an opportunity to test their aptitudes in the fields they were considering as a life occupation.

Apprenticeships

Such apprenticeship training would be closely supervised and reported on by supervisors responsible to the educational system. In other words, certain factories, stores, professional offices, and farms would be certified for apprenticeship training, and students would be placed in apprenticeship positions for 6 months of each year, for 2 years. It would be necessary to provide residential centers or approved living quarters in homes.

Within the opportunities available for such apprenticeship, the student should be given wide leeway in his choice of work. Supervision could be organized at least on a State-wide basis so the student would not be limited to the occupations available to him in the area immediately surrounding his own high school. Those students who are especially interested in farming as a vocation would choose to serve their apprenticeship on farms. An approach to farm apprenticeship is discussed later.

If apprenticeship training were available in a number of vocations, students would have a chance to test their aptitudes. They should be permitted to change their apprenticeship to some other occupation if at the end of the first year they had found they were not adapted for the work in their first choice.

Not Narrow

The high-school curriculum for the last 2 years should be so organized that students with special interests along certain lines could take courses that would assist them in entering particular vocations, but a strictly vocational curriculum should be avoided. High-school training of the kind described need not, and should not, confine itself to narrow vocational training. It should be organized to develop latent aptitudes for all the vocations—including the growing field of service occupations in our mechanized world. Students need to learn that management of business enterprise, whether in farm-

ing or industry, is more and more complex, and requires a higher and higher type of native ability, and more and more training for success in its undertaking.

Aptitudes

The reorganized high-school program would recognize that among any large group of boys and girls there is a wide range in natural talent and aptitudes—in ability to work with the head and the hands. Some are naturally endowed with ability to work with their hands, and to develop a high degree of mechanical skill, but are not well fitted to work only with their heads on problems that to them seem abstract and unimportant. Others have little knack for mechanical work, but find their greatest interest in the courses that seem abstract and unreal to those who are mechanically minded.

Scholarships

More than a high-school education is required to provide necessary training in many occupations. The national interest in a well-trained citizenship seems to justify special scholarships for the best adapted and most promising high-school graduates who could not otherwise obtain further training. These scholarships might provide either for college or for further vocational training in agriculture or other occupation. Scholarship arrangements of this kind for those of outstanding ability would open the door of opportunity to many who would not otherwise become fully trained for their life work.

In the war period the Nation has found it necessary and desirable to train young men and women for war. It should be equally desirable to provide adequate training for peacetime pursuits.

Training for Farming

Technological improvements in farming have enlarged the potentialities of family farms. With the mechanical equipment now available the farm family can operate a larger farm than was formerly possible—larger both in area and in output. Sometimes improved practices which result in larger output per acre are as important as increasing the number of acres. This enlargement of the scope of the family farm means a chance to earn more satisfactory incomes if capable management is provided.

But the farm family without competent management, or without ability to obtain adequate capital to operate a larger business, is at a greater disadvantage than ever before. Thus technological improvement has widened the gap in income between the small, low-efficiency, subsistence farm and the larger, efficiently operated family farm. These developments make adequate training essential to success in farming. This is especially true in areas where the type and size of farms should be changed in order to keep up with the changing times.

If the high-school curriculum for rural areas is revised in accordance with these suggestions, the high-school students who are especially interested in farming as a vocation would undertake apprenticeship work on approved farms during the last 2 years of their high-school course. The student might be permitted to select his home farm for this training; but in many instances

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it might be desirable to suggest a change to some other farm for apprenticeship work. It is assumed that the excellent training provided under the present 4-H Club program would be continued, but this work could be broadened to provide activities for those who are looking forward to careers outside of agriculture.

Following graduation from high school and farm-apprenticeship training, further opportunities in the field of agriculture might be provided for the most promising students. Scholarships might be granted for the best students to attend agricultural colleges. For those who had successfully completed their apprenticeship work and who wanted to enter farming immediately, financial credit and other assistance might be provided to get started in farming. Training of this kind would enable the rural youth who choose farming as a life occupation to keep up with the march of technology. It therefore would facilitate farming progress. This in turn would benefit the Nation as a whole.

Other Occupations

Gates of opportunity in other occupations should be opened for the many rural youth who are not needed on farms. The entire national economy should function in such a way that other employment is available and that no artificial barriers hinder new recruits in any occupation. Rural youth should be informed about the most promising vocations, and employment offices should be located in rural areas to acquaint them with job opportunities elsewhere.

Remedy

I know no safe depository of the ultimate powers of society but the people themselves; and if we think them not enlightened enough to exercise their control with a wholesome discretion, the remedy is not to take it from them, but to inform their discretion by education.

—Thomas Jefferson

As we develop increased efficiency both in agriculture and in industry less work will be required to produce both food and gadgets. There will be more time for other things, including recreation and increased leisure; and more workers can shift to service occupations. More workers will be called on to service complex appliances—in both urban and rural areas. There is urgent need for development of service enterprises in rural areas. In part, these enterprises substitute for work that was formerly done on the farms. But aside from making and servicing gadgets, and producing and distributing food, more time and more workers will be available for the medical and teaching professions, the arts, recreation, and the other things that really make life worth living. Through more adequate vocational guidance, both rural and urban youth should become aware of these life opportunities in an expanding economy. And education and training should be provided that will make it possible for them to utilize these opportunities.

Study by Rural Veterans: The Rural Community's Part

By CHARL ORMOND WILLIAMS. *After intensive county, State, and National experience with education and people, the Director of Field Service of the N. E. A. centers attention on the rural community's part in seeing that veterans have a fair chance to make use of their educational rights. She says there is no time for delay.*

MANY FACTORS will influence the ultimate number of service men who continue their education after the war. Other urges will be stronger: the urge to marry and establish a home; the desire for "a good job"; the desire to support or contribute to the support of his family; the desire for complete relaxation and leisure after long strain and regimentation; the desire just to be let alone. According to prognosticators, 80 to 90 percent of those in the armed services will slip back into their places without benefit of educational agencies.

Of the near 15 million who will be veterans of this war, more than 60 percent will not be qualified for college entrance, more than 30 percent have had only an eighth-grade education. Nearly half a million are without fourth-grade schooling.

Much has been written about the veteran as a college student. Experts who are studying the situation are convinced that the more schooling the veteran has, the more he is likely to seek at war's end. But by far the bigger problem and the more challenging is with the two-thirds who cannot qualify for college entrance. It is a problem that, as one writer points out, offers great possibilities as the necessary wedge in breaking the vicious circle of acceptedly low educational standards.

A group of more than a hundred representatives of departments and agencies of the Federal Government and Nation-wide organizations met last February at the headquarters of the National Education Association to discuss the problems arising under the GI Bill of Rights, in connection with veterans below college level. The purpose of the conference as explained by the chairman, Dr. Howard A. Dawson, NEA Director of Rural Service, was not to commit agencies or individuals but to assemble facts and ideas and to come to some common agreement. In opening the conference, Dr. Dawson said: "The two-thirds of the veterans whom we might call undereducated (or who at least haven't had desirable educational opportunities) are that way just because they come from places where educational opportunities haven't been available. I don't know whether all of you know that or not, but I know it is true."

For decades, when those of us who are interested in equality of educa-

tional opportunity in the United States have wrestled with illiteracy and prevalent low educational standards, our eyes have invariably fallen on the rural communities of the Nation. Wars have etched the situation deeply. With the statistics regarding the draft at hand, we can see more clearly the relationship between economic level and low educational level; facilities and accomplishment; social acceptance and motivation. Service men who had not before found the lack of reading and writing skills a particular liability, have felt the need for them even in simple tasks and in their desire for communication with family and friends.

Mostly Rural

As the great proportion of the veterans are shown to be undereducated and as the great proportions of these undereducated are from rural districts, the problem of veteran education is in great part a rural problem. Many organizations and agencies can and must cooperate on the National and State level, but the real accomplishment of aims will depend on cooperation on the local level and on the use of local agencies. In the words of the old maxim, "To be alive, it must be local."

The Veterans' Administration, which is charged with administering the provisions of the GI Bill, cannot itself initiate or operate educational or training programs of any kind, nor exercise supervision or control over any educational or training institutions. This limitation applies to other Federal departments and agencies. No administrative machinery has been provided to see that States do the job uniformly.

Whose Job?

This bill merely presents the opportunity for the veterans. To existing educational agencies, and to veterans' welfare groups in the State and in local communities, belongs the job of seeing that the offerings are there for the veteran's taking, and that he has guidance when it is needed.

Under Public Law 346, known as the GI Bill, every qualified veteran may obtain financial assistance for from one to four years of education, comprising an amount for tuition, books, supplies up to $500 per school year, and living expenses of $50 per month or $75 if he has dependents. But the veteran himself must take the initiative in obtaining this aid, which is administered by the Veterans' Administration and its 52 regional offices.

As yet no satisfactory plan has been developed for financing the educational facilities for veterans needing additional elementary or secondary schooling. It is one thing to provide money for the veteran to go to school; it is quite another thing to provide the school facilities the veteran may need.

Overhead Action

Nevertheless, efforts toward coordination are in progress. Governors have appointed committees, legislatures have appropriated sums, education departments have assembled in pamphlet form lists of approved institutions and information on educational facilities, State departments and colleges are develop-

ing bases to evaluate the veteran's educational achievement.

Legislation and State plans for veterans' education are fluid and they sometimes change overnight. Nor is the Federal picture static. In May, a dozen bills before Congress sought to amend the GI Bill of Rights.

In an effort to learn just what is being done to facilitate veterans' education, the Educational Research Service of the National Education Association asked superintendents for statements (1) describing the efforts of their school systems in behalf of veterans and (2) mentioning the chief impediments and difficulties which seem to be hampering these efforts.

Present Activities

The March 1945 circular of ERS summarizes 106 replies to the questionnaire. In small cities and counties, the present activities concern:

1. A local business-and-education inquiry committee.
2. Teacher study of provisions of the GI Bill and preparation for counseling.
3. Coordination of school services with the Veterans' Administration, the Selective Service Board, the U. S. Employment Service, the Bureau of Vocational Rehabilitation, the Red Cross, the Veterans' Welfare Board, or other groups offering help to returning servicemen.
4. Designation of one person as coordinator or counselor to have supervision of educational work for veterans.
5. Questionnaires and letters to servicemen or questionnaires in newspapers to learn postwar wishes or plans and to encourage veterans to finish courses.
6. Expansion of adult education courses and vocational courses, correspondence courses, part-time courses, in anticipation of veterans' wishes.

Call for Centers

The great problem is the development of centers in rural or semi-rural areas that will provide adequate equipment and competent teaching to meet wishes and needs of servicemen. Public vocational schools, which did an excellent job in development of quick and effective war-training programs, must recast their curriculums to provide peace training programs.

Too, these schools and the general public school of the rural areas must provide a wide range of choice in part-time adult courses, not just for the veterans but for the entire community. Adult education activity has increased during the last few years. Its importance can hardly be over-emphasized.

Each local community will need to investigate the situation within its State and within its region and township. What coordinating committee has been set up by the Governor or other official? What institutions have been approved by the State department of education? What financial aid has been provided by legislation within the State? Is there a coordinator of veterans' education for the State? Where is the nearest regional office of the Veterans' Administration? What facilities are there within the community for the returning veterans?

As a concrete example, Bob and Alton are servicemen from a Southern rural community. Bob is an able mechanic, had his own shop before

the war, has been doing similar work as a member of SeaBees. He has spent hard years in Alaska. Alton, an odd-job youngster, has become a sergeant in the Army. Bob, the mechanic, married young but has no children. Alton, the sergeant, is unmarried. Neither finished more than the eighth grade.

In their community there is only a two-teacher school, and the educational level is no higher than that represented by Alton and Bob. The nearest high school is 5 miles away; the junior college, 10 miles. Within a radius of 50 miles are several colleges.

Bob, a good mechanic in the beginning, has continued that work and will have increased his skill. He will come back to his own shop if he can revive it, to a wife from whom he has been separated for weary years. All he will want, likely, is to be left alone. And, if so, the community can perform its best service by saying, "Hello, Bob," and allowing him to go in peace.

Alton may want the same thing, and, if so, again, the community's best service is to accept him casually, make him "belong" again, and not bore him with uplift. But Alton has been a top sergeant, accustomed to command. Will he be satisfied with odd-jobs now, the unskilled tasks for which his former schooling fitted him? Can he find a school that will give him what he needs?

Own Decision

Obviously only Alton can make his decision about what he will do. The community can gather information for him, put it before him, let him make his own choice without promptings.

How Proceed?

With practically no knowledge on the subject, how can this rural community go about making preparation for the return of Alton and Bob and its other boys?

It might proceed along the following lines:

1. Bring together in a small informal group a few representatives of interested agencies: Educational authorities, the draft board, the Veterans' Administration, leaders of the community in other phases of work. The people concerned should make use of existing community organization: If there is a community council, it should form a nucleus, or the entire veterans' education work might logically be a project of the council.

2. Organize to gather information: Find the answers to those questions about State and regional offices relating to veterans. Then write letters to the State superintendent of education, to the State veterans' representative if there is one, to the nearest regional office of the Veterans' Administration; interview any near representatives of these groups, particularly the nearest veterans' vocational adviser; write to their United States Congressman for copies of the GI Bill of Rights and any amendments to it, and copies of any other bills that may be outstanding in the field of veterans' welfare; by correspondence or interview find out what is being done in the State in making plans for the return of veterans—in the way of devising objective tests, locating part-time work, providing correspondence courses and special adult classes. General materials are available from the U. S. Department of Agriculture, the U. S. Office of

Education, the National Education Association, Office of War Information—all of Washington, D. C.

Ask Them

3. Make a list of the community's servicemen and their mailing addresses. Begin now to (1) tell them what you are doing and give them the results of your investigations and (2) ask them if they have postwar plans and suggestions. Perhaps the typing classes in school could mimeograph the letters to go out. A simple questionnaire might be developed:

Do you plan to continue your old job when you return? .....

Do you want to go into a new field? .....

In either case, do you have any hopes and plans for further education? .....

If so, how would you like to continue it: full time? ..... part time? ..... by correspondence? .....

What particular study or studies do you want to pursue? .....

Do you want these at your local school? .....

If not, do you now have a choice of school? .....

To this questionnaire might be added a few explanations: "This questionnaire, of course, does not commit you in any way. The GI Bill, as you have been hearing, provides help under certain conditions for the veteran to continue or further his education. If this problem seems too far removed from your present difficult days for you to answer, we will understand. But we are eager to work now, if possible, to promote the kind of help you would like, in order that you may find what you wish on your return."

Without consultation with Bob and Alton, we can enumerate a few of the things they will not want:

1. They are adults. They not only will not want to, but they will not, sit in the usual public school classes with children who are only a half or a third their age.

2. They will not be motivated by wishes relating to the distant future. They will want immediate as well as long-time good from the sacrifice of their time in study. They will want education to contribute directly and tangibly to their problems.

3. Those with insight enough to want to continue their study will have felt an intensification of the value of time, with the sacrifice they have already made. Veterans not only of battles but of army educational services, they will not be patient with time-wasting and poor teaching. They will want to skip the nonessentials, have adult approaches. And they will want to have credit given them for the achievements and learning of their service years—they will want tests that can adequately measure what they have learned.

Let's Remember

Those who have worked with returned combat veterans have found neither great cynicism nor high idealism. Instead they are a matter-of-fact, business-like group of men who want to hurry about the business of getting a start in life. When Bob and Alton do come marching home—along with nearly 15 million others—it will be too late to set up counseling units, to try to expand education systems to receive the extra numbers, to adjust knowledge and instruction to their mature outlook. The time is now.

Surplus War Material to IMPROVE RURAL LIVING

By DAVID MEEKER. *Huge war surpluses are gradually coming on the market. Many of the items are valuable to farm families for use on their farms, in their homes, and in their communities—and land itself is included. The Government has taken care that farmers shall have a chance to buy at controlled prices. These pages suggest some of the items, show how they can be used efficiently, and sketch methods by which they are being placed within the reach of farmers. Distance will necessarily eliminate some of the surpluses from our use but vast quantities will be on sale.*

WITH THE WAR in Europe ended, and the war in the Pacific now in the mopping-up stage, the vast scrapheap of surplus military material grows bigger and bigger, and the problem of its disposal becomes pressing. Items in this pile roughly include surplus land, surplus industrial plants, and surplus stores in wide variety. Practically everybody in the country can find something in this pile that he needs or can use and probably no group of citizens will find more things likely to be of service to them than the farm families.

First, there is the matter of surplus military lands. Some of the land acquired by the Army and Navy during the last few years is not suitable for farming, and postwar demands may prevent the armed services from turning back some of the recently acquired land. But, it is estimated that about 3,500,000 acres of good soil will be returned to private use which could be so divided as to form perhaps several thousand farms and ranches.

Manufacturing plants, built to meet the demands imposed by the war form another class of surplus property. There are many of them. Some can be used to meet, directly, the needs of agriculture. Take fertilizer for instance. At the beginning of both World Wars, our farmers faced shortages of nitrogen fertilizer. Since the start of the war, nine synthetic ammonia plants have been built for the manufacture of explosives. At least a part of the capacity of these plants might be diverted to the manufacture of nitrogen fertilizer as the war draws toward a close.

Finally, there is the vast quantity of stores and equipment, including almost everything anybody can think of. As one looks over the list of items which compose this pile of used and new material, he finds almost everything—files and furniture, wheelbarrows and transport planes,

kerosene stoves and landing craft, clothing, cooking utensils, medical stores and equipment, canned food, bulldozers, electric motors. Name what you please, there is more than a fair chance that it is either available now or will be available before all surpluses are finally sold. Naturally, farmers are concerned with the way in which this land and equipment will be disposed of.

The Land

The land itself appears to fall into three general classifications: That which the Army and Navy retain for postwar military uses; that which has little or no agricultural value, and can serve national needs best if turned over to some public agency for forestry or conservation; and that which will be released for agricultural production. It would be economically undesirable to encourage or permit families to take up the submarginal land with the idea of establishing profitable farms. It would be even less desirable to sell this land to persons who, in turn, would sell it to farm seekers.

The Surplus Property Act of 1944 provides that agriculturally useful lands to be returned to private use shall first be made available for purchase by former owners in substantially the identical tracts which they sold to the Government. If a tract was occupied by a tenant at the time of sale, and if the former owner does not exercise his right to repurchase it, the tenant will be given a chance to buy the tract he formerly occupied. Lands not repurchased by former owners or tenants will be "subdivided, whenever practicable, into economic family size units" and in the sale the veterans of World War II will be given preference.

Peace is respect for the rights of others.

—Juarez

Health Materials

The accumulation of assorted surplus goods interests farmers, not only for what it contains in the way of tools, supplies, and equipment whose uses on the farm and in the farmhouse are many, but also because of those items which can be used or adapted to use in the community to make the farmers' way of life more comfortable, efficient, and satisfying.

There is a vast stock of surplus medical equipment, for example, which if properly utilized can contribute greatly to the improvement and maintenance of rural health. For several years now, people in rural communities have been disturbed by the higher mortality from preventable diseases in the country than in urban areas. According to Selective Service records, farm youth showed as high rejection rates for physical, mental, and educational defects, as any other occupational group. Farmers all over the country are expressing a desire for more rural health services when possible.

The stockpile offers many items which may be used in attaining these ends. X-ray machines, operating tables, and many other items could contribute to increasing the efficiency of small hospitals that are already in existence and toward establishing others in areas that need them. With the aid of these medi-

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In Common

We want the common man around the world who has felt . . . common suffering to know also a common healing and a common regeneration carried through . . . in a common spirit of international solidarity . . .

—Tingfu F. Tsiang

cal and surgical supplies, clinics could be set up in small towns and villages. Remote communities could be reached with mobile medical and dental units. Undoubtedly, the presence in many rural communities of such improved means for diagnosis and treatment would encourage more physicians to practice in areas which, up to now, have been inadequately supplied with either personnel or equipment.

Schools Concerned

Rural schools could benefit by buying at reasonable rates furniture and maps, and recreational, scientific, and other equipment. With this they could do a much better job, educationally and as social centers for their communities. Some schools might find it advantageous to buy machines and tools that could be used both for training students and for training farm boys and servicing farm implements and machines. Farmers throughout the country are interested in setting up such servicing and repair shops with good equipment where they can either have their work done or can do it for themselves. This idea is particularly popular in those parts of the country where a great deal of light farm machinery is used.

Recreational Equipment

Country communities have long felt their lack of adequate recreational facilities—parks, playgrounds, swimming pools. Military surpluses should yield many items suitable for or adaptable to equipping country recreational centers. For example, surplus life-rafts might be obtained for centers where there is a lake or stream large enough for them. Swimming pools can be equipped with surplus pumps and water systems. Knock-down buildings can be made into excellent dressing rooms, storehouses, and shelters. The necessary grading and excavations can be taken care of with the surplus machinery, and grandstands for athletic fields can be erected from lumber bought from the stockpile.

Fire Apparatus

One of the great hazards of rural life is fire. Mobile fire-fighting equipment no longer needed by the Army would be valuable in most

rural areas and on large farms, while hand apparatus will be available for farm buildings, schools, and churches.

Auctions and Sales

If experience up to now is any criterion, farmers are greatly interested in getting possession of some of this equipment. Evidences come from the successful experiments in holding public auctions at several selected agricultural centers in various parts of the country. Here certain kinds of surplus items have been sold to the highest bidders, and farmers have been able to bid in a varied assortment of items, mostly used, at controlled prices. Recently a number of "spot" sales have been made to dealers, farm cooperatives, and others who are in a position to buy in wholesale quantities and distribute the goods in their communities. At these sales, items are sold in lots to the highest bidder, who must pay in cash and conclude the sale. The ultimate buyers are protected by a ceiling price on each item. It is planned to continue and to extend these spot sales as fast as surplus goods which can be handled this way become available.

Because of operations in the Pacific theater, until recently not many farm-type trucks were declared surplus by the military forces, but of those so made available, farmers obtained a large percentage. Through an emergency procedure worked out by the Surplus Property Board, the Department of Commerce, and the Department of Agriculture, critical farm needs are given top priority. When necessary transportation is inadequate, or other circumstances indicate the probability of impairment in farm production in an area, the Secretary of Agriculture certifies the emergency to the Board. The Board may then order the Department of Commerce to sell trucks to dealers who agree to sell the trucks to farmers in that area who hold certificates issued by County AAA Committees. In addition, farmers have bought a large percentage of the trucks released to dealers through regular methods of surplus property disposal.

Huge Job

The task of getting all these surplus items into the hands of buyers is a heavy one, and farmers may well ask what measures will be taken to insure them a fair opportunity to get what they need. The Surplus Property Act demonstrates the Government's real awareness of the farmers' interests in equipment as well as in land. The law directs the Surplus Property Board "to devise ways and means" of selling surplus property in rural communities so as to give farmers and farmers' cooperatives "equal opportunity with others to purchase." The Board itself does no

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Strength

Our aim should be not how much strain our strength can stand, but how great we can make that strength.

—Fisher and Fisk

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selling. It designates "disposal agencies" for that purpose. Nor does this mean that the disposal agency acts as a retailer, selling directly to farmers or other purchasers. The idea is to get the surplus goods into the hands of distributors in a community, while the final buyers are protected by price ceilings, so that they will have to pay no more than fair prices for the merchandise. Items serviceable to farmers will be distributed in farming areas, as they become surplus. Several million dollars' worth of items useful on farms have already been distributed in this way.

Still a Question

The quantity of goods that is overseas when it is declared surplus will have an effect. To crate, haul to dockside, and transport the great distance across the Pacific might prove to be so expensive for some time that it would not be economical to bring them home for sale at prices consumers would be willing to pay, for transportation costs across the Pacific are more than double those across the Atlantic. The problem involved is being studied by experts in the Army and Navy, and their just findings will determine final quantities.

Obviously this is no ordinary selling job. In general it will not be practicable to issue catalogs itemizing everything that will go on sale and specifying where it can be bought. Many items will be offered for sale when they have passed their maximum usefulness. They will have to be repaired, rebuilt, or adapted to civilian use, either by the distributors or by the purchasers. Some unused items will be sold because they are obsolete, some because the armed services have stocks that are greater than their needs. Decisions determining what land and goods are surplus can seldom be made very far in advance.

The Fact Remains

For farm families the facts add up to this: for a considerable time to come, they should be able to buy, at attractive prices, an astonishing variety of good and useful articles for carrying on their operations and making their farms, their homes, and communities more comfortable and efficient.

The soldier knows . . . that in war the threat of separate annihilation tends to hold Allies together; he hopes we can find in peace a nobler incentive to produce the same unity.

—Dwight D. Eisenhower

Future Use of Fertilizers

By W. F. WATKINS. *Past programs will be broadened in line with advances in knowledge and experience and the new policies will emphasize the place of fertilizers in the system of farming. Research, education, and action programs will be directed toward the desired objectives.*

FORGING a new fertilizer program, to be placed in operation after the war, is now in order, for the prewar program has been a partial casualty of the world conflict. New advances and experiences are shaping the outline of new policies.

The future cannot be judged solely by the past. Bases for the new program are at hand. We have an abundance of past experience covering many years and we have our noteworthy wartime records. The statements of fertilizer policy issued by the national farm organizations, the National Planning Association, the TVA, Land Grant Colleges, and a Department of Agriculture fertilizer policy committee, as well as proposed legislation—all signify an accelerated interest in a broadened and strengthened National fertilizer program for the coming years.

Recommendations, explicit or implied, that are found in the reports of these organizations point in the direction of an invigorated set of policies.

These objectives are readily summarized. They include (1) the use of fertilizers as an important factor in the system of farming, (2) the use of fertilizers up to the quantity needed for efficient crop production, (3) the use of fertilizers to increase conservation of the land resources, (4) the use of fertilizer to improve the nutritional value of crops, (5) the production of adequate supplies of the most desirable kinds and grades of fertilizing material, (6) further increases in the plant-food content of materials, and (7) placing greater emphasis on research and education and the further development of effective demonstrations.

To attain these objectives is a primary concern of the postwar fertilizer program. The research and education of the U. S. Department of Agriculture, the Land Grant Colleges, the fertilizer associations, and the fertilizer industry, have been influential forces in the past as they will be in the future. Action programs have emphasized the application of fertilizers on conservation crops and they have influenced the wider use of fertilizer that is essential in atttaining desirable levels of fertilizer consumption. This has been a good beginning in the direction we want to go.

As soon as conditions permit, expanded educational, demonstration, and action programs will be called for to make the new program definitely effective.

Integration

When conditions are reasonably normal individual farms should be studied in regard to the system of farming and soil fertility, and then a farsighted program should be visualized. Together, the farm plans will indicate the larger program for each area. Some critics have held that past fertilizer practices were destructive, because emphasis was placed on growing cultivated cash crops which increase soil erosion and soil destruction. This was not wholly true, but a postwar fertilizer program that emphasizes the use of fertilizer on the grasses and legumes as well as on the cash cultivated crops in the system of farming will have definite advantages.

Individual Farms

The individual farm plan is the basis for considering the fertilizer needs and use in efficient crop production. Eventually, each farmer must analyze his farm plan, study the land use and needs of each acre, and the needs of different crops. Then he can work out his fertilizer plan accordingly, not only for one year but for several, and it will be a part of the whole farm program. Farmers will need assistance and guidance in making these plans and in carrying them out. County agents, local fertilizer dealers, the township local committeemen, Smith-Hughes teachers, the officers and leaders of farm organizations, and representatives of Federal and State action agencies—all must be reached in the preliminary educational work and together they will form an invaluable medium for reaching farmers and giving them the necessary assistance and advice.

At present most of the States have some practical fertilizer recommendations for efficient crop production that can be used as a starting point in developing necessary recommendations for an extensive program in the postwar period. Refinements will be necessary to fit the recommendations to soil types and systems of farming. More attention must be given to the kinds and quantity of fertilizer to be recommended for grass and legume crops—Federal and State agronomists have a real job to do in meeting this technical responsibility. They cannot work in a closed shop. To provide the right information and to train others is an essential part of their job.

Diversification

Proper use of fertilizers will permit successful growing of a number of crops. Frequently the reason for concentrating on single crops has been the low fertility of the soil and its inability to grow the other crops successfully in a diversified system of farming. The new policies, if well carried out, should mean the escape of many farmers from the tyranny of one-crop farming.

Experience in growing red clover in many midwestern States is an interesting demonstration of one kind of diversification that fertilizer makes possible. On many farms red clover began to fail so frequently

that it was dropped from the rotation, and corn silage or timothy was substituted for forage. But now, with the use of lime and phosphate, and potash fertilizer in some cases, it is being grown successfully on many of these farms again and a permanent productive system of farming has been re-established.

Supplementary

Under a desirable use program, the application of fertilizer supplements the plant food already in the soil. When the natural plant food is low, commercial fertilizer must provide most of the nutrients for plant growth; on the other hand, if the soil is already well supplied with plant food only a small supplementary application of fertilizer may be needed.

Costs

Prices that farmers must pay will influence decidedly the way fertilizer is used after the war. In considering the cost of fertilizers, a farmer will count not only the retail price but the additional expense of hauling to the farm, storing after he gets it there, and the costs of applying it to the land. Costs of handling large tonnages on a farm can become a major expense factor, especially where the rate of application per acre is high or where many acres are to be fertilized.

Technological advance and competition in the fertilizer industry have aided in supplying farmers with low-cost fertilizers. Progress has been made during the war, particularly in the production of material of higher analysis; these advances can be expected to reduce the cost of fertilizers still further. Manufacturing and distribution costs mainly relate to tonnage and are not influenced by the plant-food content. Savings can accrue as material is handled in bulk, thus reducing the cost of bags and bagging. The use of more materials as "simples" (individual materials) on grass and legume crops and a continuation, with improvement, of the limitation on the number of grades offered for sale will also reduce costs.

Food Values

Passing to another consideration there is the question of food values in relation to fertilizers. Knowledge is being accumulated on the differences in the food value of crops grown on different soil types and the usefulness of fertilizer in improving the nutritional value of crops. But the subject is still replete with unsolved problems. Apparently the possibilities are many. Experiments have demonstrated that the mineral content of some forage and other crops can be increased if fertilizer is applied to the soil. Thus fertilizers can make very real contributions to the livestock feed pro-

Unmeasured

Men's capacities have never been measured; nor are we to judge of what they can do by any precedents.

—Henry Thoreau

gram and provide more milk, butter, and meat for the human diet.

Present and future knowledge regarding the relation of climate, fertilization, and crop varieties will eventually have decided influence in the development of the nutritional phases of the program but it will take time to conduct the necessary experimental work, make the appraisals, and then obtain in actual practice any extensive application of the favorable factors in crop production looking toward the improvement of the nutritional value of human foods.

Rate of Application

The desirable level of use for efficient production of most crops after the war will require an increase in the rate of application of fertilizer per acre. In general, present rates are high for most vegetable crops and for crops that have a high per acre value. On crops like corn, small grain, and cotton, higher rates per acre than are usual would be advantageous. In addition, large acreages of crops are now grown without fertilizer where the only way the production can be truly efficient is through its use.

It has been estimated that, in 1942, fertilizer was applied to about 70 million acres of crops. Analysis indicates that at least 150 to 200 million acres of land could be efficiently fertilized each year. This would not mean that the tonnage of fertilizer used would increase in proportion to the increase in the acreage treated. The bulk of the increased acreage that should be fertilized, in a desirable use program, would not require a high rate of application per acre. But at the same time, there would be an increase in the rate per acre on the acreage now fertilized.

All analyses so far made in an effort to learn the most desirable levels of fertilizer use point to a greater consumption than we have ever had. There can be argument as to the exact quantity that should be used, but this is not of importance at the moment in view of the fact that in all studies the direction is the same.

Area Differences

Some areas have been spending a larger percentage of the farm income for fertilizers than others; in 1935–39 this varied, for instance, from 0.05 percent in Iowa to 3.2 in Ohio, and 17.0 in South Carolina. Recently, the greatest percentage increases have taken place in areas that spend the smallest percentage of the farm income for fertilizer. There has been an unfilled demand of unknown quantity in the Midwest and in the Pacific Coast States. In a desirable use program the past relationship between farm income and expenditures for fertilizer by areas can and should change materially.

Expenditures for fertilizer have been largest on cash-crop and lowest on livestock farms, particularly those with forage crops. The importance of fertilizer and lime in connection with livestock systems of farming has been demonstrated and as the facts become well known the demand for fertilizer will increase. Needs on livestock farms will vary depending on the quantity of feed purchased and the care taken of farm manure. Livestock farming calls for a different fertilizer program than one applicable to grain and cash-crop systems of farming.

Questions

What about the supply of materials to meet a larger demand? We have encouraging answers. The development of synthetic-ammonia processes, the war plants already constructed to make it, and the probable imports of nitrate of soda from Chile should assure an adequate supply of nitrogen. Our deposits of phosphate rock are extensive and plant capacity for the production of superphosphate can be readily expanded in each area. Domestic resources of water-soluble potash are limited, but adequate supplies can be imported from Europe at reasonable cost.

What shall we do with the increased production that will come with the working out of the strengthened fertilizer program? That is a good question. But a better question is, Should the use of fertilizer be held at a low point and inefficient crop production continued? The food needs of a liberal diet will require a high level of agricultural production and a balance in the production of different crops.

There should be an increase in the acreage and production of soil-conserving crops, some of which can be used for livestock feed. Other land can be used for soil-building crops which will result in higher yields per acre of cultivated crops, an important factor in efficient and quality production. The fertility built up from 1936 to 1940 through the agricultural conservation program has been of untold benefit in obtaining high yields and production levels, so needed since 1942.

Summarized Program

No one believes that the goals of best use will be attained in a year or two. The main job seems to be to exert effort to insure adequate supplies to meet the desired levels of use, then expand research, educational, and demonstration programs aggressively, and provide action programs based on technical facts that will reach all farmers. Cooperation of farmers, farm organizations, the fertilizer industry, Federal and State workers, will assure success. The direction is clear. Details can be worked out in progressive stages as we go forward.

One People

We are not a country of conflicting groups; there is hardly a household, hardly an individual, whose interests do not cross and overflow group boundary lines.

—Clinton P. Anderson

Love of the Land

By BRISTOW ADAMS. *Yes, why not talk of it once in a while since it persists as a background if not as a basis to most of what we do for the improvement of the land and of the conditions of those who live on and by it.*

THERE'S no other word for it. Some folks may speak of land-mindedness, but that does not tell half. Love of the land comes nearest to the sentiment that prompted the Polynesian saying: "The land is the only living thing. Men are mortal. The land is a mother that never dies."

Though all persons do not have a love of the land, anyone may have it, and be fully conscious of it. It is not the exclusive possession of the farmers nor of those who live in the country.

Nor do all farmers possess it. Some farmers, who perhaps do not deserve to be farmers, entirely lack affection for the soil they till and that helps to feed them. Others actually hate it with an unchanging hatred, and long for the day when they can be "shed of it." As a generality, never wholly true, the successful farmer has a genuine feeling for land. Yet some may love the land and not know how to treat it, affectionately or otherwise.

On the other hand, some city men and women have a strong sentiment for the land though they have never turned a sod—except perhaps with midiron or niblick—nor have they ever lived in the country, nor had immediate forebears who made a living from the soil. Such a man never wearies on a train journey through our States wherever he may be. Watching from the window he appreciates the landscape to the full as it flows past. He not only admires it for its beauty—he senses its construction and its variety and its possibilities. He notes its very anatomy as well as its clothing, particularly as shown in late winter or early spring, where lingering snow accentuates land structure in shaded hollows or on north slopes.

He notes the changes in the landscape as the train leaves level areas of cultivated crops for rounded hills of pasture lands which in turn give place to groves of hardwood trees, with here and there a few hemlocks, until he reaches a summit covered by conifers. His eyes seek the mountain tops with their varying peaks, and he notes again, with never-ending surprise, how the whole scene appears to flatten when he views it from the crest.

Those who are conscious of their love for the land personalize it in their thoughts. They think and speak of the intimate charm of the farm lands of the northeast, of the austere and forbidding aspect of the Rockies, of the restfulness of desert solitudes.

This sentiment for the land, even among persons who give no other evidence of sentiment, sometimes

hinders the efforts toward rural rehabilitation and resettlement as those who have worked on these plans for rural betterment well know. Where a man has tilled the soil, even for a poor reward in crops or with constant threat from drought or overflow, he often has a feeling for his acres that makes him loath to leave them. When he turns up a row of potatoes on his own farm he gets a thrill akin to that of the prospector who sees golden color amid the sands he washes.

Those who do not feel such an emotion in the course of their daily lives miss something that nothing quite replaces and that cannot be described to one who is insensate to the call of the soil, from which all life comes and to which all life returns.

Books

BIG DEMOCRACY. By *PAUL H. APPLEBY*. Alfred A. Knopf. New York. 197 pages.

NOT EVERYONE will agree with all that Mr. Appleby has to say in *Big Democracy* but all who read this book will be wiser about government and public administration. Some may deny that "within government and outside of government . . . the trend is toward bigness" but none will deny that "government has to do what it has to do." Those who do not want to believe will not be convinced that the bureaucrat is not sufficiently respected but there are few who will not be persuaded that government is quite different from private industry not only in the nature of its function but also in the type of personnel attracted, in the degree of accountability for all its acts, in the complexity of the job and in the need for superior administration. The value of this book is less in the slant of the arguments advanced than in the wisdom presented to support them.

Big Democracy is full of wisdom. This is not a discussion of the bare mechanics of government but the reflections of the author on the fundamentals of the living governmental process. The book contains profound observations on leadership, on patronage, on relations between the executive branch and Congress and the people, on organization, on red tape. There is an important chapter on international administration. Mr. Appleby is incisive and provocative in his observations. He has thought much about his subject during his many years of service in highly responsible public positions. The wisdom and value of what he writes is exceeded only by his real contributions to better administration while he was a bureaucrat in the Department of Agriculture.

Big Democracy is for all who would know government better. It is a sophisticated book in the sense that the more experienced and wise the reader the more he will learn from it.

—*Leon Wolcott*

TIME FOR PLANNING: A SOCIAL-ECONOMIC THEORY AND PROGRAM FOR THE TWENTIETH CENTURY. By *LEWIS L. LORWIN.* Harper and Brothers. New York. 273 pages.

THE ROAD TO SERFDOM. By *FREDERICK A. HAYEK.* University of Chicago Press. Chicago. 250 pages.

THOSE who read Hayek's book should read Lorwin's as an antidote. Here are two mature students of economics who have written books on the same subject and have arrived at diametrically opposite conclusions. One is opposed to any effort to "plan progress" and calls it *The Road to Serfdom;* the other likes all kinds of planning including local, State, national, and international planning, and says that now is the time for more of it.

How can such well-trained men as these two authors seem to be disagreed so completely on such a basic issue? This reviewer finds at least an important part of the explanation in differences between their preconceptions as to what democracy is and ought to be. Hayek identifies democracy with the absence of "collectivism." Witness these lines: "It is often said that democracy will not tolerate 'capitalism.' If 'capitalism' means here a competitive system based on free disposal over private property, it is far more important to realize that only within this system is democracy possible. When it becomes dominated by a collectivist creed, democracy will inevitably destroy itself."

If by "collectivist creed" Hayek means the creed of trade unions, chambers of commerce, farm organizations, and the Democratic Party, then democracy was dead before it was born; it never existed and never will. In spite of his protest that he is not advocating laissez faire, this passage and others in his book show that fundamentally he has little place in his economic preconceptions for collectivism of any kind, whether it be the Nazi or the American brand. Americans call the American brand of collectivism democracy, whether Hayek likes it or not.

And one can be excused for wondering whether he likes it too much, as indicated by these lines, "It may well be true that our generation talks and thinks too much of democracy and too little of the values it serves. It cannot be said of democracy that . . . It is itself the highest political end . . . Democracy is essentially a means for safeguarding individual freedom." Here Hayek clearly reveals his preconceptions—and they are very different from my own.

Democracy is both a means and an end. And as a means, it includes "collectivism" to safeguard individual freedom. Mine are the preconceptions of the late John R. Commons who held that from an *economic point of view,* the essential distinction between a democracy and a dictatorship (whether of the type of Hitler's and Mussolini's, or of any other kind) is to be found in the means employed for resolving conflicts of interest between classes and groups. Democracy resolves them by the peaceful and evolutionary process of *collective* bargaining; a dictatorship resolves them by force. To have a government which insists

on using collective bargaining instead of force is an end in itself—an end of the highest order.

Lorwin seems to have this same preconception, even if it is not expressed in these words. He seems to recognize economics more as a *process* than as an *equilibrium of forces*. As a *process* it is conditioned by custom and has historical roots. He would support Hayek's plea for the "rule of law." In fact, the real hope for democracy in England and America is to be found in the peoples' deep respect for the rule of law which has its roots in hundreds of years of Anglo-American jurisprudence. It is a system of common and statute law which recognizes individual duty as well as individual liberty. Its future does not depend upon the substitution of "individualism" for "collectivism."

Hayek seems to think that American collectivism is drifting inevitably towards Nazism or something worse. His evidence is that well-meaning "planners" in Europe fell into that trap. In my judgment, he underestimates the force of American tradition. We have dictatorship in America when the Army is used to suppress a strike—an event that is among the rarest occurrences in our economic life.

Lorwin recognizes that one of the greatest problems in National planning is that of reconciling group interests. He is not a "blueprint planner," but he sees a place in democracy even for blue prints. His is what he calls the "social-progressive" type of planning, as distinguished from the "absolute socialist," "partial state socialist", or "voluntary business" types. He not only has a better understanding of what American democracy is, but he also sees more clearly the importance of planning as an essential technique for making it what it ought to be.

It will be hard to find anywhere a more realistic definition of American democracy than in Lorwin's Decalogue of Democracy. His analysis of the planning problem is brilliant, and should be read by all planners. Being an "expert" himself, he can be excused for having more faith in the ability of experts to reveal what is the "general interest" or the "general welfare" than this reviewer thinks they possess. Having been associated with an experiment in agricultural planning, I should like to have found in Lorwin's book just a little more about agricultural planning. He gives a full and effective discussion of "American Labor and National Planning."

In a sense it is unfair to include Hayek's book in the same review as Lorwin's, for Hayek himself makes no claim that his is anything but a "political" polemic. It is at least that. By way of contrast, Lorwin makes a real contribution to the understanding of a real and current problem. His approach is dispassionate and analytical. He sets up no straw men to knock over, makes no assertions about his objectivity, seeks to frighten no one, and directs his words to people who are competent to judge their validity.

—*Bushrod W. Allin*

It is better to light a candle than to curse the darkness.—Chinese Proverb

FOOD FOR THE WORLD. Edited by *THEODORE W. SCHULTZ.* University of Chicago Press, Chicago. 353 pages. (The Twentieth Institute of the Norman Wait Harris Memorial Foundation.)

HOW to get more and better food into the mouths of the underfed people of the world . . . This is in essence the problem presented in *Food for the World.* The idea that food should be produced and distributed with regard to human needs first found expression some 20 years ago in the work of the League of Nations. It was the theme-song of the Hot Springs Conference in 1943, and is a major objective in the plans for the proposed United Nations' Food and Agriculture Organization.

Feeding the world is not a problem of agriculture alone; it reaches over into many related fields, as nutrition and public health, economics, population studies, and international relations. Accordingly, the Twentieth Institute of the Harris Foundation was carefully planned to present the several aspects of the problem in proper perspective. Authorities in each of four fields discussed the issues which were then commented upon by a panel of participants. The entire proceedings have been welded together in able fashion by Dr. Schultz.

The contents of the book are grouped into six parts, leading off with a review of the food movement. The first organized efforts on an international scale had their beginning in the work of the League of Nations. Reports of the League's Mixed Committee were of particular significance because of emphasis on the "integrated approach," the principle underlying these Harris Foundation lectures. During the prewar years the food movement continued although nutrition knowledge advanced more rapidly than its application. It takes a war, however, to bring food into the foreground and during this war governments have intervened in production and consumption management as never before.

A discussion of population, an important facet in a long-time view of world food needs includes principles to be considered and concrete situations such as the effect of improved nutrition in a country like India where population already presses against food supply. The section on nutrition includes a brief review of advances in nutritional research and its relation to human welfare. The reader is told that the function of nutrition is "to discover, evaluate and make available facts which can be applied to the development of wise food practices." In the task of feeding the world the science of nutrition can play the role of technical consultant; it furnishes the basis for evaluating food supplies and for planning food programs. It sets the goals and it measures progress; hence, it deserves an important place in directing thought and shaping policy.

Several chapters on world food supplies point to the disparity between nutritional needs and food to meet them both in over-populated and food-deficit areas, and in countries like the United States where food could be abundant. Under demands of war an enormous food production potential has been demonstrated in many countries. Yet after the war there will still be underfed millions in some areas

while food surpluses will be almost certain in others unless national and international distribution schemes are devised. This point leads straight to the heart of a discussion of international relations, in which trade policies, commodity agreements and international organizations are examined.

In a book of this nature composed of separate segments, there is bound to be some repetition of facts and of ideas, just as there are at times widely divergent views. Herein lies part of its value, in the opinion of the reviewer. For there is no clear-cut and easy way to reach the objective. "Adequate food for all" may be a fine-sounding phrase to which we would all subscribe. But as one of the authors points out, it is necessary not only to consider the long-run objective but to shape short-run measures.

The importance of policy is stressed throughout. Before any programs can be set in motion there must be a clear understanding of the issues and their implications. What we decide to do about agricultural adjustments and underconsumption in this country is as much a part of the problem as our attitude toward foreign trade and international cooperation to raise consumption levels in other countries. A properly functioning Food and Agriculture Organization offers great possibilities for the development of an international food policy.

It is hoped that this book will be widely read. These are new ideas, broad horizons. We need this vision of the whole in order to make firm and sure the steps which will need to be taken in the very near future.

—*Esther F. Phipard.*

World Population in Transition. Edited by *KINGSLEY DAVIS.* Annals, American Academy of Political and Social Science. v. 237, January 1945. Philadelphia. 203 pages.

AS AN important symposium on world population prospects, this volume is a worthy companion to volume 188 of the Annals, *The American People: Studies in Population,* which has served well as a summary reference, and even as a textbook for students of population. In addition, the new volume's focus on the momentous shifts occurring in the growth, distribution, and composition of the world's population and implications of these shifts for future international problems mean that it should appeal to a far wider group than population technicians.

In the leading article, the editor reviews briefly the course of world population growth, by continents. The first real burst of world population growth came with the Industrial Revolution. From 1650 to 1940 the world's population increased from about a half billion to more than 2 billion persons, and at an accelerating rate of increase. If the rate of growth in world population between 1900 and 1940 were continued for 200 more years, there would be 21 billion inhabitants by then.

Dr. Davis believes, however, that the next century will see the peak of

the world's population growth reached and a new demographic balance spread throughout the world. This will mean a transition from an agricultural to an industrial regime, which cannot be made in many countries without dislocating and disorganizing great sections of the people. Modern knowledge must be used to make the transition as quick and smooth as possible by the development of a scientifically grounded population policy throughout the world.

Ten articles grouped under the heading "Regional Studies" provide for most of the regions of the world descriptions of the current population and prospects for future population changes. The authors vary in the degree to which they make predictions, but there seems to be rather general agreement that the populations of the United States and Western Europe will become a smaller and smaller proportion of the total population of the world.

The authors vary more in their appraisal of this prospect, as do those of the eight articles in the next section—"Aspects of Population Change." Some think this prospect is inevitable but believe its consequences a matter for speculation which only the future can verify. Another views the prospect of a stationary population achieved by Western countries as a definitive and humane solution to the pressure of population on the food supply and feels that other regions must follow this example or see the gains of technological progress dissipated in maintaining an ever-growing population at the minimum of subsistence.

The author who writes on China and Southeastern Asia concludes with a question, "Is it not time that we began to take account of this new differential in population and for the sake of expediency, if we are not moved by considerations of justice, began to plan a world in which we shall be a small minority with a diminishing proportion of the world's industrial power?" Others among these writers advise us in the United States to follow our birth and death rates with concern if we wish to see the position of our country maintained. One author feels that the more advanced countries have a common interest in the imposition of restraints upon the reproductive potentials of countries whose potentials are not now under control—"an interest which should find expression in any plan for world economic and/or political organization."

A final section on population policy reviews the measures nations have taken to increase or decrease their populations. In overpopulated areas, the author of this section thinks that the need for formulating and implementing realistic policies directed toward population control is general and urgent. For the advanced nations also, certain alternatives in population policy are discussed. This author concludes that special measures for maintaining fertility in these countries will have little effect unless (1) there is increased emphasis in the national culture on the value of family life and (2) there is effective assurance of full and constant employment.

—*Margaret Jarman Hagood*

Gratitude is the memory of the heart.—Massieu

THE FARMER AND THE REST OF US. *By ARTHUR MOORE.* Little, Brown & Company. Boston. 226 pages.

THIS IS a twentieth century tract, in the best sense, devoted to the proposition that "the farmer and the rest of us" are interdependent. It is an outgrowth of the realization that food will be indispensable so long as there are people, that unless we take thought our food-producing resources will decline, and that self-interest alone indicates to the farmer his concern for the welfare of his best customer—labor—and to labor its concern for the continuing welfare of the farmer. Though questions may be raised on minor points the book is good and should be widely read by farmers, laborers, white-collar urbanites, and their respective "leaders".

The author, for 10 years editor of the *Daily Pantagraph* of Bloomington, Illinois, who has never lived on a farm, writes with an intimate knowledge of the agricultural type he knows best. This type he regards as the American agricultural norm: The big-family-type, commercial Corn Belt farmer. But he recognizes both the wide range about that norm within the Corn Belt, and the tremendous variation of agricultural patterns within rural America.

To consistent readers of this magazine there are no strikingly new ideas here. Moore's acknowledgments indicate the general trend of his thinking: Liberty Hyde Bailey, John D. Black, E. G. Nourse, Anna Rochester, Theodore Schultz, Howard Tolley, among others. The outstanding virtue of this work is its persuasiveness in lines of argument not often phrased in such palatable form. Moore has no patience with plodding or colorless writers. Take, for example, his scorn of those writers in agricultural economics who often take refuge "in the protective coloration of a Government scholar, hoping only to tell the truth so dully that no one would notice."

The book is filled with compact pungent passages, quotable in the extreme. Unreflecting browsers may not realize how solid and substantial is the fare. In addition to treating the more conventional phases, he deals boldly with such subjects as the role of farm organizations, the demoralization inherent in selfish lobbying activities, the function of farm-protest movements and the political pragmatism of farmers. His analysis leads him to stress the need for more vigorous, fearless, and effective social science research and adult education to deal with the fundamental problems of an enduring agriculture in an industrial society.

Fifteen chapters are devoted to diagnosis. The last chapters contain his prescription—and a plea for understanding. Concludes Arthur Moore:

> 1. The family farm must be dominant.
> 2. Group *versus* group strife must be resolved.
> 3. The land must be protected by a satisfactory rural life.
> 4. Adequate diet for all is the legitimate goal of agriculture.
>
> The four would restore farming's faith in itself as a source of national strength. I believe them to be valid standards for any agriculture which is part of an industrial society . . .
>
> The farmer can never maintain his place in an industrial society by his solitary efforts. When will the town, the city, and the capital understand what he means to American life?

—*Edgar A. Schuler*

THE HOPI WAY. By *LAURA THOMPSON* and *ALICE JOSEPH,* with a foreword by John Collier, Commissioner of Indian Affairs. University of Chicago Press, Chicago. 151 pages.

FOR MANY CENTURIES a settled, town-dwelling agricultural group has lived in the desert of the Southwest. These people developed one of the most advanced nonmetal-using cultures known to man. With rare inventive genius they developed dry-farming and irrigation methods which provided fairly sure and abundant crops. On the institutional side they developed a way of life that enabled them to survive and maintain their cultural integrity in an inhospitable desert environment and in the face of the militantly proselyting Spaniards, the warlike and land-hungry Navajos, and "The Americans."

This is the first of a series of studies initiated by the Indian Service under the leadership of John Collier, then Commissioner, and carried out in collaboration with the Committee on Human Development of the University of Chicago. The purpose is to help the Indian Service develop programs and administer Indian affairs in a way that will assist the Indians to develop a full and satisfactory life, maintain their cultural values and integrity, and at the same time incorporate things from the white man's culture.

The Hopi Way gives an excellent picture of Hopi life, beliefs, institutions, philosophy, and religion. More important, the reader is shown how these are interwoven to form the integrated Hopi culture. The reviewer knows of no book in which one can see better the *wholeness* or unity of a culture. This concept of cultural unity is exceedingly important to administrators of programs which affect the lives of people whether they be Indians, whites, or Negroes—or if they be Germans, Japanese, or Americans. As John Collier points out in a foreword that should be read by all whose work involves carrying programs to people, "Does one seek to influence an individual or a group? Let him discover what is central to the being of that individual or group. Let his effort at influence be near to, and not deviate sharply from, the line of force of that which is central to the being of the individual or group. Thus, he may influence profoundly and helpfully. Remember that deep and central preoccupation, devotions and views of life can be helped to apply themselves to new practical ends. Here is the secret of efficient and democratic administration."

YET THIS CONCEPT of cultural unity is one of the most difficult to understand and it is still more difficult to apply administratively because it involves the necessity of fully understanding the culture of the group and seeing their problems as the people themselves see them. It requires the temporary setting aside of one's own values, beliefs, and practices—most of which seem naturally and universally true to us—and stepping into the cultural shoes of another group. For instance, it is reported that school attendance is low among the Hopi when school conflicts with ceremonials. One principal of a school for Indian citizens persuaded the village leaders to hold some of the

native ceremonials on week-ends. Apparently it did not occur to him to adjust the school days to fit the Hopi secular calendar.

This book is too complex and contains too many subtleties to be summarized in a short review. It calls for reading and study. The material is grouped in five sections: "The Web of Life" gives an excellent picture of the integration of the Hopi culture; "The Journey from Birth to Death" shows how the individual is adjusted to the culture and how he lives in it. Then there are "Some Young Hopi en Route," ten personality pictures; "Growing Up to be a Hopi," and "In Retrospect."

In some ways the section containing the personality sketches of young Hopi is both the most and least satisfactory. It is most satisfactory because it so well illustrates the difficulty of bridging the gap between two divergent cultures. It is unsatisfactory because the authors have been unable to describe the young people in terms of the Hopi's own standards and values. They could not do so because the tools of analysis and language used are those developed within our own cultural matrix. A really good description is impossible unless the Hopi themselves develop a system of psychoanalysis evolved out of their own culture, and under those circumstances we probably would not understand it.

As a whole, the material is presented clearly and in a way that gives life to a subject that could have seemed heavy and unreal. The format is attractive and the excellent photographs provide added interest.

—*Earl H. Bell*

PLEASANT VALLEY. By *LOUIS BROMFIELD*. With drawings by Kate Lord. Harper & Brothers. New York. 302 pages.

PROSPECTIVE readers are cautioned that *Pleasant Valley* was not written for experts. But this is not right. The story of the building of Malabar Farm is a story for all friends of the land. This is true despite the money there was at hand to do the job. And it is true despite Bromfield's kicks at the shins of the U. S. Department of Agriculture. But USDA bureaucrats take some pats-on-the-back, too. So the thing to do is to rub our shins, because the book will leave those who read it with a healthier appreciation of good farmers and the land they work.

The story begins when Mr. Bromfield returns to Pleasant Valley which he once knew "as only a small boy can know a valley." After many years of writing elsewhere and some garden farming in France the author, when war clouds loomed in Europe, came back to secure for himself, his family, and friends and relatives who might eventually need help, a place on the land. To build Malabar Farm, he acquired three abandoned farms, none of which, according to the author, had been farmed well. First he hired an expert, an agricultural college graduate. Max Drake was to supply most

of the farm-management know-how and Mr. Bromfield the capital. Together, they worked out a farm plan.

The plan was simple. First, they were to rebuild the soil. The best soil had washed off the hills and the farms were marked deep with ugly scars and gullies. The soil-building program agreed upon—fertilizers, green manures, conservation farming, tree replanting—would warm the heart of conservationists. Next they were to remodel the barns for modern farm machinery. Whatever was sold off the farm "would have to be able to walk off." The feed raised on the place would be fed and the animals marketed, leaving behind tons of manure to restore the land. The young manager and the master of Malabar did not always agree on the fine points of farm management. Mr. Bromfield wanted to make the farm nearly self-sufficient. And that's about what it is today.

But it is in describing the animals he has had both in France and at Malabar "who think they are people" that the author is writing his Sunday best. All the animals of the farm—the wild and those who belong in the family—are welcome and they know it.

A substantial contribution is the good word for the dreams of the many who want a spot in the country. Mr. Bromfield believes that more Americans will turn away from our cities to obtain at least a small place on the land. In the rings of open country around our great cities he sees more real security and satisfactory living than can ever be had in a city apartment. And he is probably right.

This book has one note definitely off key. And anyone who knows farming in the United States—the good and bad—will recognize it and be disappointed. The continued reference to American farmers as being soil destroyers is unfair and certainly not in line with all of the facts. We have many poor farmers, but soil alone has not made it possible for the United States to become probably the greatest agricultural nation in the world.

Not all books are improved by sketches. This one is. The drawings by Kate Lord of cattle in the barns and fields, the farm in winter, freshly plowed fields, the creeks and hills, the big house, the flowered walks and walls, the sugar camp, and the beehives make it possible for the reader to visit Malabar Farm while enjoying this book in an easy chair. All in all, it is pleasant reading.

—*Gus Larson*

There is no true liberty for the individual except as he finds it in the liberty of all. There is no true security for the individual except as he finds it in the security of all.

—Edwin Markham

BEHOLD OUR GREEN MANSIONS. By *RICHARD H. D. BOERKER.* University of North Carolina Press. Chapel Hill, N. C. 313 pages.

"GOD HAS LENT us the earth for our life. It is a great entail. It belongs as much to those who are to come after us as to us, and we have no right, by anything we do or neglect, to involve them in any unnecessary penalties, or to deprive them of the benefit which was in our power to bequeath."

Mr. Boerker has taken these words of John Ruskin for his theme. We must handle our forests for the maximum benefit to ourselves and to those who come after us. He apparently is not any too confident that individual owners of forest land are going to live up to their obligations to posterity without some prodding. With profit as the basic incentive, exploitation of the forest resource is too likely to be wasteful. "The history of forestry," he says, "shows that the role of Government is at first merely persuasive and educative. Economic and industrial development in a country may later require restrictive measures and the exercising of police functions. The final stage which has come about in many European countries, evidently because the other two methods have failed, is that of direct Government ownership and management."

In this country, however, he is willing to settle for something like 50-percent public ownership of our forest lands ("the nature of the forestry business makes this inevitable") and for "certain simple restrictions on timber cutting and forest land management." The Federal Government, he believes, should take an active lead in promoting good forest practice, but there will always be a definite place for State forestry, community forestry, and private forestry.

But this book is not primarily a treatise on national forestry policy. It is, as the subtitle says, "A Book About American Forests." A tremendous amount of factual information is packed between the two bright-blue covers. The book describes the nature and extent of forest resources of the United States, and the relation of forests to recreation, wildlife, water supply, flood control, agriculture, and soil conservation. The many products of the forest are discussed, and the part forests play in livestock production. Chapters tell about fire and its control, about insect enemies of the forest and tree diseases, the history of governmental forest work, the development of the National Forest system, the progress of the States in forestry matters, forestry problems in the Southern States, and economic factors in private forestry. The book is well illustrated.

The author bit off a large subject, and has done well by it. He is an experienced forester who has published several volumes. This book should be helpful background reading for students of civics, economic geography, and conservation—as was presumably intended. It will be as helpful to anyone else who wants to know about the forest situation, the problems involved in the development of forest-resource conservation policy, and the importance of forests to national welfare.

—*C. E. Randall*

World Grain Review and Outlook, 1945. By *HELEN C. FARNSWORTH* and *V. P. TIMOSHENKO.* Statistical appendix by *ROSAMOND H. PIERCE.* Stanford University, California. 319 pages.

THIS IS an experiment by the Food Research Institute, as a form of continuing the publication of information regarding world grain crops. The periodical, *Wheat Studies,* has been discontinued; the directors of the Institute have not yet decided upon the character and form of publication to replace it. This experimental volume deals primarily with wheat but surveys data with reference to rye, rice, and several feed grains. It concentrates on the 1943 and 1944 crops but gives a perspective of changing conditions since 1929, with prospects for the crop year 1945.

There is a valuable summary of effects of the war upon production, trade, prices, and consumption of grains. Nowhere can the reader find as brief and comprehensive documentation of Government actions in the several countries regarding grains and what they have accomplished. The digest regarding 1944 supplies and prospects for 1945 provides a background for appraising current conditions. Forecasts are not attempted, but a summary of conditions that will determine seedings in 1945 and prospective demands for grains provides a substantial basis for developing programs for the year.

The needs and prospective relief in continental Europe are considered. Reported data indicate a smaller decline in production in 1944 than might have been expected. The conclusion is that bread consumption in continental Europe, west of the pre-1939 frontier, will be lower in 1944–45 than last year and the decline cannot be compensated for by larger consumption of other foods. The supply of bread grains in Russia improved in 1944.

Perspective is emphasized. It is gained by statistical data, charts, and discussion of Government policies and other factors influencing production and consumption. One chapter outlines the development of grain controls since the 1930's, policy commitments, and prospects for transition and postwar trade.

The conclusions cannot be summarized in a sentence. Perhaps for us the most significant statement is that "the postwar export movement of wheat from North America will probably not be large enough to bring substantial relief from the sizable wheat surpluses likely (barring crop disasters) to be held at the end of the war by Canada and the United States." In a discussion of policy considerations, it is suggested that the United States discontinue the costly policy of supporting domestic wheat prices above the international level, and let the domestic market adjust to the international market, to be associated with temporary farm relief and a long-time adjustment program for farmers dependent upon wheat.

In response to the authors' request for suggestions, this reviewer recommends the continuation of annual world grain reviews, inclusion of more data regarding importing countries and other grains in the excellent tabular material, and further development of data and analysis as to consumption of breadstuffs and alternative uses of the grains.

—*O. C. Stine*

America's New Opportunities in World Trade. Planning Pamphlet No. 37–38. Fertilizers in the Postwar National Economy. No. 42. A Food and Nutrition Program for the Nation. No. 46. National Planning Association. Washington.

IMPORTANT problems of the postwar world receive detailed treatment in these reports. The pamphlet on foreign trade reviews America's place in world trade, pointing out that we still adhere to the foreign-trade and investment policies of our non-industrial and debtor period, a practice which "serves to prevent foreigners from paying their financial obligations to us, to depress our own export opportunities, and to depress the world's trade level in general." But the United States, now a creditor nation, has no alternative but to "furnish a volume of outgoing exchange through imports which will balance its financial claims upon other nations." The report presents a foreign-trade budget for 1950 which, while it is stated to be capable of achievement, is intended primarily as a framework around which to build an adequate foreign-trade policy geared to modern needs.

The second pamphlet surveys the fertilizer situation, emphasizes the usefulness of fertilizers as a yardstick in measuring farm income, and covers such subjects as consumption, prices, demand, resources and their utilization, foreign trade, and domestic production and capacity. Among points evolved from the survey are: (*a*) wholesale and retail prices have been reasonable; (*b*) at least 10 million additional tons could be used efficiently if a demand for more production existed; (*c*) United States supplies of nitrogen and phosphates are very large, but proven potash resources are very small; (*d*) our capacity to produce nitrogen, phosphoric acid, and potash is above probable commercial demand even should farm income remain at a high level. The national fertilizer policy developed by the NPA Agriculture Committee on the basis of this survey provides, among other things, for control by private industry (including farm cooperatives) of commercial production and distribution of fertilizer material; duty-free imports of fertilizer material; duty-free imports of fertilizers, limitation of subsidies for the use of fertilizers to soil-conservation practices, and stimulation to fertilizer consumption in the shape of measures to insure a continuing high farm income and an intensified research and educational program.

The third pamphlet represents an attempt to help lay the groundwork for a continuing effort to raise our nutritional level. The first desirable goal is to raise the diets of the most poorly fed people to a moderate level. Measures proposed are "partly individual or private, partly group or organization, and partly public or governmental," requiring the planned cooperation of a long list of proposed participants. Recommendations include intensive international nutritional planning through the Food and Agriculture Organization, and establishment by the President of a committee to study the administration of the Government's part in the program.

—*Catherine C. Carmody*

U. S. GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE: 1945

Peace, like liberty, requires constant devotion and ceaseless vigilance. It requires willingness to take positive steps toward its preservation. It requires constant cooperation among the nations and determination to live together as good neighbors in a world of good neighbors. Peace requires an acceptance of the idea that its maintenance is a common interest so precious and so overwhelmingly important that all differences and controversies among nations can and must be resolved by resort to pacific means.

—CORDELL HULL

Land policy REVIEW

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UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE
BUREAU OF AGRICULTURAL ECONOMICS

Contributors

Editorial Note: IN THIS the first number to be prepared after the termination of the war, all of the articles are geared to the forward look into the new era of reconstruction.

E. Jay Howenstine, Jr., author of *The Economics of Demobilization,* is an agricultural economist in BAE.

John M. Brewster, agricultural economist, has served in several capacities in FSA and BAE.

Harold Hedges is Acting Chief, Cooperative Research and Service Division, FCA, and is National Activity Leader in Agricultural Cooperation, Interbureau Committee on Postwar Programs, USDA.

Roy J. Burroughs, BAE agricultural economist, wishes to note his indebtedness to executives of co-ops, housing specialists, and Department officials for suggestions regarding the plan he proposes.

W. U. Fuhriman works out from the BAE office at Berkeley, Calif., where he is regional leader in farm management and costs.

L. F. Easterbrook contributes this article through the British Information Office.

T. S. Buie, regional conservator of the SCS, is stationed at Spartanburg, S. C.

Frieda S. Miller, Department of Labor, is Director of Women's Bureau; John H. Provinse is Chief, Community Organization Division, War Relocation Authority; Howard Zahniser has resigned as Head, Division of Information, BPISAE, to become executive secretary of the Wilderness Society and editor of *The Living Wilderness;* in BAE are O. V. Wells, price analyst, and John F. Timmons and Gerhard J. Isaac, agricultural economists.

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STABILIZING EMPLOYMENT *by Rural Public Works*

By E. JAY HOWENSTINE, JR. *Time is already late for rural communities to get busy on the blueprints for postwar public works, says this author, if the works are to be adequate to rural needs, capable of employing many people effectively to the benefit of the public, adapted to expansion and contraction as situations demand, and if they are to be really ready when the call comes to spring into action. Suggestive pointers are given.*

DEMOBILIZATION of a 90-billion-dollar war machine cannot be completed overnight. Nor can the conversion from war to peace production be accomplished, even under the most favorable circumstances, without a great temporary shrinkage in the Nation's purchasing power and a sizeable amount of temporary unemployment. Whether this catching-up time will bring more than a relatively short period of unemployment will depend mainly on the type of plans and programs which Government, business, and labor have in readiness to meet the demands of readjustment.

Many flexible measures may be required to maintain a high level of mass purchasing power and high levels of employment in the years ahead. Of the measures that have been proposed, public works has the distinction of being one which almost all agree to be desirable.

Before public-works policy can play its most effective part in the stabilization of employment, however, three indispensable conditions must be met. Real public needs must be many to permit the use of public works as an efficient employment-creating device. Enough well-planned, worth-while projects must be planned before they are needed to expand employment opportunities. Sufficient funds to finance the public works must be appropriated in time. If any of these three conditions is

lacking the potentialities of useful public works may be lost to made-work, boondoggling, and leaf-raking.

Urgent rural needs that in themselves outline very satisfactorily a desirable expansion of public works as an employment policy are at hand, as even superficial observers of rural communities are aware. Much-needed public facilities and improvements of a traditional nature include a long list—roads, schools, hospitals, health centers, sanitation facilities, county agricultural buildings, recreation facilities, public range conservation and development, public forest land development, and fish and wildlife conservation. The list is becoming familiar but how much is being done about it?

Awakening

In addition a tremendous amount of work on private land is required, including soil and range conservation and development, forest land development, irrigation, drainage, and clearing, to bring this area of the rural community up to a reasonable standard of adequacy. The financing of this group of works is still largely a private matter. But because of a growing awareness of the public interest in the development and conservation of natural resources, the scope of public works has been widened—especially within the last 15 years—to include certain private land conservation and development that is definitely in the public interest. What part of rural land development on private lands will be undertaken as public works will depend upon future public policy.

Finally, there is a large area of need among the farm facilities—electrification, housing, and sanitation. These will be predominantly financed by individuals, but they definitely affect the health and welfare of the Nation and so might be undertaken in part as public works.

Urgencies

Building up an adequate reserve of well-planned, worth-while projects is the second major requirement of a flexible public-works program. It is impossible for a rural public-works policy to take its appropriate part in helping to maintain full employment unless there is readily available a reserve of diversified projects of a nature that can be quickly expanded and contracted.

Despite the costly experiences of the thirties, rural communities with few exceptions are today scarcely better prepared to turn unemployment into useful work than they were then. A Nation-wide survey made by the Federal Works Agency reveals that on July 1, 1944, nonmetropolitan counties throughout the United States had completed plans for only 28 million dollars' worth of projects. In addition, special governmental districts, State Governments, and the U. S. Department of Agriculture have an undetermined number of blueprinted projects ready for immediate operation. If rural communities are going to make rapid progress in improving their resources and facilities and providing useful work for their possible unemployed, their real task is to make adequate plans at once.

Call for Organization

Inadequate organization for planning is one of the major hindrances to the building up of a reserve of

rural projects. Responsibility for planning rural improvements resides in local, State, and Federal Governments, and in local groups of citizens. Planning of Federal agencies is under way. State planning is moving forward. In such cities as New York, Chicago, Cincinnati, and Portland, where effective planning organizations have been actively at work for several years, detailed plans are now ready for the word *Go*. By contrast, most local rural governments are far behind in their planning.

They Know

There are good reasons why local people should share the major responsibility for planning, carrying out, and maintaining improvements in their home communities. They, better than anyone else, know what they need. They will be mainly responsible for keeping up these improvements after these are made. If an improvement is poorly planned, poorly located, and poorly constructed, the local people lose. If it is properly planned and carried out, they benefit.

Committees

A planning committee that represents all major community interests might well be the nucleus and focal point of rural public-works planning within the county or other appropriate area. The establishment of an area-wide planning committee with working subcommittees is a fundamental step in developing sound projects. This committee could serve as the spearhead for local planning, acting in a capacity similar to many city planning groups who have done an effective job of building up a reserve of improvement work for urban areas. The local committee also could be responsible for working with Federal and State agencies in arranging for technical and possibly financial assistance.

A local public-works planning committee will be more successful if it includes both local officials and civic leaders who do not hold office, and so represents all major community needs. Roads, education, health, housing, sanitation, marketing, irrigation, electrification, conservation, and recreation, are to be remembered. Representation of all important local interests on the committee helps to insure the development of a well-rounded program.

Subcommittees composed of members of existing boards, committees, and groups, to act on specific problems or to operate on a community basis within the county are frequently desirable, to facilitate local planning. In this way, full use can be made of existing organizations. School boards, highway commissions, health boards, and conservation boards all help. Nongovernmental groups such as Parent-Teacher Associations and Home Demonstration Clubs should be brought in early in the planning.

Earth-Light

The capacity of the American way of life in the years to come is beyond the vision of man.

—Henry A. Wallace

The job of building a reserve is divided into five steps: preparation of a well-rounded development plan based upon land resources and population patterns, selection of specific projects to carry out this plan, arrangement of projects into a long-range public-works program of development, blueprinting the plans for the projects and holding them in readiness for operation, and annual revision of the long-range program.

Bottlenecks

Adequate funds must be available when needed. This is the final condition of a flexible rural public-works policy. In two phases of public-works the funds are crucial—in blueprinting the project and in its actual construction.

Lack of funds to finance the blueprinting process, which on the average amounts to 4 percent of total project costs, has been a major reason for the lag in rural planning. Local charters or State constitutions sometimes even prevent the spending of funds for advance planning. It is a striking fact that, on July 1, 1944, according to a report on a Federal Works Agency questionnaire, 27 States and more than half of all local governments lacked the authority or funds to complete their project planning.

Aim

The environment to which a veteran returns must be as good as the one he thinks he had before he left.

—Gideon Seymour

Justice

Justice is truth in action.

—Joubert

Funds

One way to break the planning bottleneck is for State and Federal institutions to help finance the preparation of plans and specifications for future public works. Five States—New York, Michigan, California, New Jersey, and Maryland—have set up funds to do this. Some of these funds are established on a matching and others on a loan basis. Congress has empowered the Federal Works Administrator to make non-interest-bearing loans amounting to $17,500,000 to States and local governments to finance the preparation of plans. Evidently, rural communities with inadequate funds for planning should take immediate advantage of this chance to get financial help.

As to the second phase of public-works finance, rural governmental units have made little progress thus far in accumulating reserve funds for public works. Returns on the Federal Works Agency questionnaire on proposed postwar public works showed that only 29 million dollars in funds were on hand or arranged for to finance them, regardless of their stages of planning. Special dis-

tricts reported an additional 10 million dollars on hand or arranged for to finance such works. This survey indicates that funds on hand or arranged for by rural governments will hardly make a beginning in financing the needed rural improvements and in employing workers, both men and women.

State Governments have made more progress in accumulating reserves. By March 1945, States had accumulated balances of 1 billion dollars in their general funds, $469 million in their highway funds, and $156 million in postwar reserves. This makes a total of more than $1.6 billion in unencumbered funds available for public works now that the war is over. It should be pointed out, however, that these balances represent money that would have been ordinarily spent on public works during the last 4 years if labor and materials had been available. In fact, preliminary studies indicate that aggregatae wartime State surpluses are not so large as would have been needed to finance those public improvements that were postponed during the war.

Position Good

State and local governments have also made some headway in reducing their debts during wartime prosperity. From 1940 through 1943 the net reduction of debt in all local government—rural and urban—was roughly 700 million dollars. State governments reduced their net indebtedness by about the same amount in the same period. State and local governments are unquestionably in the best financial position they have known since 1929.

Speed it Up

To what extent local rural governments will be able to assume the financial responsibility for rural public works during the readjustment and reconversion period that is now full upon us and to what extent State or Federal aid will be necessary will soon be seen. But the way in which financial responsibility for rural public works is distributed and the method by which these works are financed is a relatively minor consideration at this time.

Quick acceleration of project planning at all levels of operation is the thing needed to build up a well-balanced reserve of work so that when workers and materials are available and perhaps waiting many projects will be ready for a quick start and, if a great expansion of public works is needed as part of a national employment policy, plenty of good projects will be ready to put speedily under contract.

But human rights are powerful not only in war but in peace also. They are means as well as ends. It is in the practice of these rights that the best hope for a secure and lasting peace must rest.

—Archibald MacLeish

Farm Opportunities:
Output & Population Growth

By JOHN M. BREWSTER. *New land has lost its old meaning, according to this writer, who explains why and calls for a modification in our land policy to meet changed conditions.*

FOR MORE THAN two hundred years the national farm plant expanded in both its physical output and its employment capacity. Long habituation to this two-dimensional growth of agriculture developed the easy idea that when all else failed one could always find in farming an opportunity for making a living. But the last quarter-century has brought to the front the fact that farm output capacity and farm-employment opportunities rest upon quite different foundations, inasmuch as the production of food and fiber has kept on expanding, while on the average from 1920 to 1940, the number of farming opportunities slipped away at the rate of more than 100,000 each year.

Expanding farm production is very closely related to growth in domestic population. For example, from 1880 to 1910, there was an 83-percent increase in population and an 82-percent increase in farm production. From 1910 to 1940, population increased 43 percent, farm output 37 percent. In each period, a decline in farm exports made possible a slight advance in the per capita consumption of food and fiber, even though population was growing at a faster rate than farm production.

A close relationship exists between expanding farm output and total population growth for a number of reasons.

First, farm exports offer little prospect for greatly expanded outlets for food and fiber in the foreseeable future. Except for temporary influences of the last two World Wars, such exports have been declining since 1900—especially so in the 30's. For the period 1925–29 farm exports represented the annual average production from approximately 50 million acres as compared with about 23 million acres for 1935–39. Here was a decline of more than one-half. It is generally assumed that in postwar years exports may absorb one-seventh of the total farm product provided we have full employment. Otherwise the proportion is likely to be smaller, because diminished foreign purchasing power would follow a contraction in our imports.

Second, new outlets for farm products as industrial raw materials appear to be limited. The human stomach is by all odds the primary user of farm products. Exclusive of tobacco, beverages, and fibers more than 80 percent of the entire farm output winds up there. Probably less than 10 percent of the entire farm output is used as industrial raw materials. Great expansion in in-

dustrial uses of farm products should be kept in mind, but there is "little sign that potential uses of this kind offer a field in which they can effectively compete with cheaper substances."

Third, increased per capita food consumption now offers little ground for expansion in the aggregate farm output. Although there is considerable variability in the quantity of any particular food that a person may want, the total quantity of food he can consume soon reaches a limit. Consequently, per capita food consumption varies only slightly over long periods of time. For example, in no year during a recent 30-year period did such daily consumption fall below 4.69 pounds or rise above 5.18 pounds.

Farm Output

The margin of underconsumption, arising from limited purchasing power in periods of partial employment, about represents the extent to which farm production might be expanded in terms of need. For example, it has been estimated that per capita food consumption during the depression years was around 15 percent less than it would have been under full employment. Farm output is now sufficient to meet this margin were it to be added to our per capita consumption. But recent military and lend-lease requirements and the temporary needs of war-torn countries for the moment do not permit this high level of domestic consumption.

For these reasons changes in farm output are closely related to the growth of domestic population, but the like cannot be said for changes in farming opportunities, either as farm operators or as farm laborers. These may either increase or diminish, while farm production and total population keep on expanding in fairly direct proportion.

Twin Influences

As the number of farm opportunities to which given farm outputs give rise is chiefly dependent upon productivity per farm worker and as farm output is so closely related to population growth, any change in the number of farm opportunities is pretty much the function of the comparative rates of total population change and farm technological advance as reflected in productivity per farm worker.

Whether or No

Therefore, as long as population growth was faster than farm technological advance, the farm plant necessarily expanded both its employment capacity and its food and fiber output. Thus from 1880 to 1910, an 83-percent population increase (41.8 million) was accompanied by only a 34-percent gain in farm-worker productivity. By virtue of this increase in productivity, providing food and fiber for this larger population was reflected in only a 35-percent increase (3 million) in farming opportunities. Under these conditions, times might be good or they might be bad but with the same dependability as the round of the seasons, the national farm plant was opening up an ever larger number of new opportunities for willing hands.

Not Now

But that day is done—eaten away by the chemist, geneticist, physicist, and inventor. For through their

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tinkering with the ways of nature, technological advance (as reflected in farm-labor productivity) overtook the rate of population growth about 1920, and has been stepping ahead ever since at an accelerated pace with no prospect of abatement in the visible future.

This has laid upon the Nation's doorstep a farm plant with an expanding food and fiber output on the one hand and with declining farm opportunities on the other. For example, a 25-percent increase in total population from 1920 to 1940 was associated with a 55-percent gain in farm technological advance, which in turn was reflectd in a 20-percent decline in farming opportunities (nearly 2.3 million workers).

Once the rate of farm technological advance has overtaken the rate of population growth, bringing new land into farming exerts little influence upon the fact that farm production continues to expand while farm opportunities decline.

Soil Resource

The principal reason for this condition lies in a chain of circumstances. In any state of the technological arts society's needs for food and fiber require a certain amount of land. Only this amount of land enters into actual farming opportunities. Food and fiber requirements of a growing society do require an ever larger soil resource. But this resource may be forthcoming either as the result of bringing new acres into farming or through increased production for society from existing acreage. In the first case, this new soil resource arises from "nature in the raw." In the second case it arises from technological change by way of improved yields or substitution of mechanical for animal power.

Therefore, so long as population growth is faster than the rate at which technological change increases the soil resource (without increasing the total number of acres), new land necessarily constitutes a potentially larger number of farming opportunities. These are realized so soon as new land is brought into cultivation.

New Land

Under these conditions it is impossible to think of new land except as meaning more opportunities for farms and farm workers. Such was the case until about 1920. Substitution of mechanical for animal power had begun but had made no substantial inroads—there were more horses and mules on farms in 1920 than 10 years before. Yields had remained relatively constant for several decades.

Changing Times

In line with this customary meaning of new land, a suitable land policy consisted in ways and means of enabling more people to get onto the land. Helping farm workers get off the land into other employments was inconsistent with the times.

Thinker

Thought is the property of him who can entertain it, and of him who can adequately place it

—Emerson

But times have changed. From 1920 to 1940 technological advance has been creating new soil resources available for society's needs at a rate faster than population growth. While population increased 25 percent in this period, the effective land resource increased by 20 percent through improved yields and another 10 percent by substituting mechanical for animal power (after allowing for weather).

On Ahead

Nor is the end in sight. It has been estimated that by 1950 farm production may be increased about 15 percent above the war level through wider use of fertilizer and lime, new varieties of crops, pest control, crop rotation, and other improved practices. This is equivalent to an additional 15 percent in our soil resources. It has been estimated that population will increase during this period by less than 4 percent.

New Meaning

Only that number of acres whose product is needed by society enters into actual farming opportunities. On the other hand, technological advance is increasing new soil resource for society's needs at a faster rate than population growth and is also increasing the acreage that a man can handle. Therefore, in its passage from the old to the new situation, new land has lost its old meaning—an increasing total number of farming opportunities. This number must decline regardless of whether new land is brought into cultivation. This is the case even if acreage per worker remained constant, but especially is it true if acreage per worker increases, which is more likely to happen.

Under these new conditions, bringing new land and workers into farming in some areas not only has shed its old but has also acquired a new meaning—ultimately forcing a larger number of workers out of farming in other areas, either by way of land retirement or by shifts from intensive to extensive forms of land use.

Call for New Policy

In line with this meaning of new farm land, a modified land policy is needed which would coordinate (1) bringing new productive land into farms with (2) ways of facilitating the shift of excess farm workers and families into other occupations as well as facilitating necessary shifts in land use along with some reorganization of old land into adequate farms.

This about-face in the nature of a modern land policy is no more radical than its cause—the shift of farm technological advance to a faster rate than total population growth. Throughout the long trail of man's struggle for bread, and vividly so in our settlement era, the first premise of a fitting land policy was the everyday necessity for more farming opportunities as a means of providing food and fiber for a population that was growing at a faster rate than farm technological advance. But in the new situation, the foundation of a fitting land policy is a firm grasp of the ways and means for maintaining a full employment economy as the basis of alternative employments for an occupationally declining agriculture.

FARMER COOPERATIVES IN WAR AND AFTERWARD

By HAROLD HEDGES. *As a hundred years have now passed since the introduction of the Rochdale principle it is a good time to take stock of cooperation in the agriculture of this country. Moreover, many general readers want to know what war has done to this form of cooperation and what its prospects are now the war is over.*

THE MAGNIFICENT job that has been done by the agricultural industries over the last four years in handling their part of the war effort, despite innumerable handicaps, is neither well known nor appreciated. All too few realize the intensity of the pressures put on the processing and distributive systems for farm commodities and production supplies by a 40-percent increase in agricultural production and by the drain of manpower and materials into war channels. It has not been an easy period, and the days ahead will present their tough problems, too.

Farmer cooperatives can review with real pride their part in the enormous task of processing and marketing the enlarged farm production, and of "scaring up" enough of the fertilizer, feed, petroleum, and other supplies needed to get the farm job done. The record will show they have done their full share—and perhaps a little more. With this record behind them, most of the co-ops face the future with confidence, bulwarked by loyal memberships and strong net-worth positions. They not only are in good position to meet any postwar problems that may arise but they are anticipating what those problems may be—and laying their plans accordingly.

It is estimated that fully half of the Nation's farmers are members of cooperative associations that are engaged in handling and processing their products, purchasing necessary farm supplies, or providing essential farm-business services. As many farmers are members of two or more associations, duplication occurs when individual associations report their memberships. There are no accurate data to tell how many farmers are members of one or more cooperative associations.

Here is a part of the story as told by latest figures on numbers and membership—and figures are necessary in telling it. For 1943–44 some 7,500 associations serving 2,730,000 members, were engaged primarily in marketing activities, while 2,778 associations with 1,520,000 farmer members were occupied mainly in purchasing farm supplies. Over half of our farmers obtain protection from fire, wind, and hail losses through some 2,000 mutual insurance companies. More than 4,000 mutual irrigation companies serve about 150,000

farms. More than 800 rural electric co-ops provide service to over a million rural homes. More than 2,000 mutual companies with switchboards supply farm families with telephone service. In the credit field are 1,781 national farm loan associations, 514 production credit associations, and about 370 rural credit unions. Some 1,400 livestock improvement associations—sire ownership, dairy-herd improvement, and artificial insemination groups—are aiding in the improvement of the quality of livestock on farms.

Then there are thousands of small, informal farmer groups—threshing rings, spraying rings, machinery pools, bull clubs—all utilizing the cooperative technique to help with the farm-production job.

Competitive Force

Cooperatives probably have come in for more widespread public discussion during the last year or two than in any other period of the 100-odd years of their existence. Most attention has been directed toward the marketing and purchasing associations which have been furnishing pretty stiff competition to the other forms of private-business enterprise. Even though the co-ops occupy a commanding place in only a very few segments of agricultural industry, their position is sufficiently strong in many lines to make them a real competitive force. And facts and figures lend support to the view that they have been improving their position during the war period just closing.

Regional Set-Ups

The trend in cooperative marketing since 1930 has been toward fewer but stronger associations, and the development of regional set-ups in order to expand marketing functions and to increase their over-all effectiveness. Our entrance into war in 1941 did not change this trend.

Membership of the marketing co-ops increased by 19 percent to 2,730,000 between the years 1940 and 1944. During the same period their business volume increased just about in proportion to the unprecedented increase in total value of farm marketing. Considering the two factors—membership and business volume—there is the suggestion of improved membership relations so that more cooperative patrons became members but with little change in the proportion of farm products marketed through cooperatives.

A somewhat different story is told by the figures for the purchasing co-ops. Between 1940 and 1944, their membership increased by nearly 70 percent to 1,520,000 and their business volume increased to $1,010,000,000 for 1943–44, a gain of 125 percent. This compares with an increase of 94 percent in the current operating expenditures (not including labor) of American farmers during the same 4-year period. It would seem, therefore, that during the war the purchasing co-ops substantially improved their position among the handlers of farm supplies.

Net Worth

Cooperatives, along with most other business concerns, have fared very well financially during the war years, and have been able to improve their net-worth position. Data for both 1940 and 1944 for a fairly representative group of associations give an idea of changes in financial status.

For the group as a whole, the net worth of farmers in their associations increased by 109 percent between these two dates. Comparing large-scale or regional co-ops with the local associations, the former showed net-worth gains of 132 percent as against 78 percent for the locals. Comparing the marketing with the purchasing associations, the gain in net worth for the former was 96 percent as against 136 percent for the purchasing co-ops.

All in all the cooperatives appear to be in fairly good financial position to take care of any postwar adjustments. As financial data are not available for other types of business dealing with farmers, no comparisons between co-ops and the other concerns can be made.

Responsibility

These figures do not tell the whole story of what has been happening in the cooperative field during the war. The co-ops have run up against the same problems of manpower and material shortages as other business concerns. Despite these trying conditions they have recognized, perhaps more than other segments of the industry, their responsibility to farmers and to the Nation to do the necessary job of marketing and processing the farmers' products and to provide the essential production supplies.

One interesting development was the move initiated by regional purchasing cooperatives in 1941 to set up the National Committee for Farm Production Supplies. Governmental war agencies soon recognized in the Committee the group most representative of farmer interests and looked to it to reflect farmer thinking on problems under consideration which concerned farm production.

This is only one instance of a growing tendency of the cooperatives to work together more closely on matters of mutual interest. To improve public understanding of cooperative principles and objectives, co-ops took steps last year to revitalize the American Institute of Cooperation. They have also given increased support to their various non-trading associations. Both local and regional co-ops have demonstrated a greater inclination to work together in overhead business organizations to perform more marketing or processing functions, and to procure or manufacture farm supplies to better advantage.

Now that the longed-for postwar period is under way, cooperatives face the same business problems that private profit firms operating in the same field must face, plus a few which are distinctly cooperative in character. Illustrating the first type of problem, are the co-ops that have been selling most of their output to the Government for military or lend-lease use. They must find new markets. This may involve changing the form of the product and almost certainly will mean new types of packages and methods of handling. Typical of the distinctly cooperative problems are those of modernizing organization structures or of reviving activities regarding membership relations.

Main Objectives

Space will not permit discussion of specific problems, but attention may well be directed to the main objectives which cooperatives might keep in mind in planning their postwar

programs. Farmers are justified in utilizing the cooperative device only when it offers a way to solve an economic problem of which they are very much aware. Once established, the cooperative can justify its existence for the long pull only by doing as good as or a better job of marketing or purchasing or rendering other services than do other elements of the industry. Operating efficiency has been neglected by many business firms, including cooperatives, under the favorable operating conditions—wide margins, the sellers' market—which persisted during the war.

Improved Efficiency

Since the goal of cooperatives must always be the lowest possible cost consistent with effective operation, it should be a postwar objective to work quickly and diligently toward further improvement in operating efficiency. With debts rather well liquidated and reserves built up for postwar contingencies, most cooperatives should not be handicapped by inadequate capital. Manpower, materials, and equipment should be increasingly available. Conditions, therefore, appear to be favorable for making moves that will result in greater efficiency and put the organizations in strong competitive positions.

Many students of the problems of agriculture concur in the view expressed by Secretary Wickard in 1944 that the cooperative is the device which offers "the most to enable operators of family-sized units to meet large-scale competition on its own ground and yet preserve their independence." To realize more fully the possibilities which the cooperative may offer, new fields of cooperative activity need to be explored and new types of service developed. Its extension into areas not now served should be encouraged. Many producers who operate family-size farms have yet to learn how—through active participation in marketing, purchasing, and other service cooperatives—they can gain for themselves the advantages of economy and efficiency claimed for large-scale farming.

Prospects

Cooperatives are often referred to as typical of economic democracy. The element of patron ownership and control in set-up, combined with the dominant objective of adequate service at reasonable cost makes them so. They already have proved to be a real force in combating monopolistic tendences. They have helped definitely to bring about a higher level of business ethics and, because of this, have received the stamp of approval of church, school, and government.

Even though governmental policy provides a favorable climate in which cooperatives may function, the initiative for improving and expanding the movement must come primarily from those who use them. In the ranks of their membership is to be found much if not most of America's rural leadership. In the ranks of management is a growing store of business know-how. Whenever or wherever local farmer groups become fully aware of real need for cooperative action, they no longer lack a ready source of information and inspiration near at hand. Under such conditions, we may rate the prospects for further sound cooperative development as good.

Farmers' Cooperative Construction Service

By ROY J. BURROUGHS. *This proposal grew out of studies being made by the Department's working group on rural housing and farm buildings. It is not offered as a solution of the farm building problem but rather to raise the question as to whether this approach toward a solution would be practicable and feasible. It is presented to stimulate further discussion of the timely subject of finding the best means for improving rural housing and farm buildings.*

THERE is sketched in broad outline a proposed Nation-wide farmers' cooperative construction service.

At once, certain questions arise in our readers' minds. How would such a service operate? Through whom would it operate? Is it needed? Even before this outline is read, these questions will plague many readers. The replies cannot be given in three-letter words, but they are here.

If undertaken, this service might well be the responsibility of existing federated cooperative purchasing associations of farmers. It would be organized cooperatively and, through existing local cooperatives, it would be available to most farms and ranches in this country. It would be given technical guidance through a national federation in corporate form and this corporation would serve farmers through the existing regional supply purchasing cooperatives which would own its common stock.

If the system operates as outlined here, farmers could get materials and services of standard quality at more reasonable prices than are now possible. As technology advances, farmers could share in the benefits of the advance to a greater extent than would otherwise occur. Urban consumer groups might also take part in a program of this nature whenever they develop to a point at which they could safely assume such a responsibility.

The time is ripe for the introduction of such a service. Veterans are returning to establish new families who will want new farm homes, or at least a modernized version of older houses. Much farm housing is obsolete and during the war both service buildings and dwellings have deteriorated for lack of proper maintenance. With about 17 billion dollars or more of liquid resources and a comparatively low indebtedness,

farmers generally are certainly in a position to utilize whatever improved construction services become available.

A cooperative construction service may be viewed from three levels—national, regional, and local. Two national corporations which are federations of regional associations now operate in a somewhat limited way. Seventeen major regional cooperative purchasing associations are engaged primarily in wholesale trade but several also operate in retail trade, manufacturing, mining, and forestry. Most of these regional associations constitute federations of farmers' local cooperative associations. In several cases, however, the regional associations are owned directly by individual farmer members.

At the close of their fiscal years in 1944 the 18 major regional purchasing cooperatives are reported to have had a net worth of nearly 65 million dollars. In that fiscal year the wholesale business alone of these 18 associations grossed over 348 million dollars. Sales of lumber, paint, maintenance equipment, and electrical equipment exceeded 7.3 million dollars.

Other activities related to a construction service include forest management and the operation of lumber and shingle mills.

Proposal

Now it is proposed that these regional purchasing cooperatives establish a corporation and provide the equity financing by purchasing the common stock. The corporation in turn would use the regional cooperatives as an outlet for its services. As an alternative such services could be made the function of a branch of one of the existing national corporations but a more inclusive federation might be possible were a separate corporation organized for this specific purpose.

National Level

The function of the national corporation with respect to the provision of a construction service would be threefold.

1. To provide technical "know how" and organizing skill. This can be done in such ways as interpreting scientific reports of public and private research agencies, testing goods bought, making recommendations concerning structural design, instructing regional technicians in procedures, occasional on-site inspection of services being offered to farmers in order to encourage uniformly high standards that are properly adapted to each type of farming or climatic zone, and making recommendations for improved local and regional organizations.

2. To coordinate the buying of certain building materials or mechanical equipment for the regional cooperatives. This function could well serve the country as a whole at the time when surplus war materials, including housing, is to be disposed of in sizable lots. A large-scale buyer can operate economically in bidding for materials, and in moving and utilizing them.

3. To assure a continuous supply of goods to the regional cooperatives at reasonable prices and with full utilization of the most recently available technical improvements. If necessary the corporation might engage in manufacturing, mining, and forestry.

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The regional cooperatives would use the corporation as buying agent only in circumstances in which centralized purchasing would better serve the interests of farmers.

Regional Levels

Regional cooperatives would continue to serve individual farmers through existing channels. According to the present most frequent arrangement, the regional cooperative serves as a wholesaler and the local cooperative as a retailer. In other cases the regional cooperative owns the local retail outlets. In some instances the regional cooperative uses private retail stores as outlets. The distribution of building materials can operate much as it does now, though many additional outlets are needed, especially throughout the South. Some of the regional and local co-ops now own lumber yards in considerable numbers.

One regional cooperative plans to employ one or more architects to design farm structures. To provide direct architectural service to farm families to help them plan for remodeling or new construction, appears to be its logical next step.

Many of the construction-service functions of the regional cooperatives might best be performed for farmers through a farm service shop operated by a local co-op. In other cases the local farmer cooperatives—both those engaged in purchasing for farmers and those that market farm products—would serve merely as agents of the regional cooperatives. A farmer would place his order with his local cooperative which in turn would pass the order for service on to the regional cooperative.

Local Levels

Farm service shops are one of the most promising developments toward providing a farm construction service. Shops have been tried in at least one State. They are operated by local cooperatives. The array of mechanical and automotive equipment now found on modern farms and in modern farmhouses calls for many kinds of mechanical service. These shops aim to provide them. The mechanics in the shops become skilled in repairing many kinds of equipment. Each farm-service shop now in operation or immediately contemplated plans to employ technical workers and carpenters as soon as they are available. During bad weather the carpenters can build brooder houses and do other work under cover.

One regional cooperative now trains the service personnel of the local farm-service shops. It also performs certain operations that require specialized equipment or skill, such as reboring the cylinders of a tractor motor.

A local cooperative ordinarily would have a sufficient staff of mechanics on its own pay roll to handle emergency repairs. But were the local volume of business insufficient,

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Certainty

They know what's what at the grass roots.

—Henry A. Wallace

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even this work might have to be in charge of the regional cooperative, although if a mechanic is to be available in an emergency he cannot be too far removed. As farmhouses become more modernized this problem may become more pressing. But farmers and their families are realizing that they themselves must become somewhat mechanically able if they are to use modern equipment. Consequently they may be better equipped than most other home owners to do their own emergency repairs.

Provision of crews with spray guns, sawmills, or other equipment might be either a regional or a local matter depending on the volume of business. If a foreman or operator must be sent with the equipment, regional control probably would be necessary.

Ruling Principle

The ruling principle is that a given service be controlled by that association, whether local or regional, which has a volume of business that will assure a reasonable continuity and economy of operations.

To sum up—farmers could make application to, or advise with, any existing local cooperative which would provide, or would request the existing regional co-op to provide, certain services. They would include such services as offering a complete line of supplies, complete contracting service, architectural and engineering service, offering the service of foremen to supervise a farmer or a group of farmers in self-help; hiring of crews with proper equipment; and supervision of cooperative woodlots. This proposal would be consistent with most plans for governmental action to improve the housing conditions of farmers.

Strength

Society is no stronger than its least secure members.

—Eric Johnston

Advantages

A few of the advantages to farmers of such a system may be passed in review. As a supply and service cooperative operating on a big scale the system could offset any existing price rigidities by returning savings to the consumers. If supplies at reasonable prices could be obtained in no other way, the corporation would be empowered to engage in whatever extractive or manufacturing activity might seem desirable. The corporation could use its power and technical knowledge to obtain quick application of a useful patent. If necessary the corporation could buy the patent for its own use or for lease to others.

Because it would have an integrated system, the materials and services needed by farmers could flow by the most direct route. Cross shipments and multiple middlemen could be reduced. Local mechanics would be guided by standards of performance instituted by the national corporation. Engineering planning from the top would have a tendency to assure skilled operation down the line.

The large scale of activities and the wide geographic coverage of the

regional cooperatives would permit comparatively continuous work by mechanics and machines. This would reduce the costs of labor and machine per job. A farm-service shop operated by a local cooperative would have an even better chance at continuity of operation because of the diversity of its functions.

Cooperatives that have farm-service shops will have a decided advantage in merchandising pre-cut and pre-fabricated structures. The shops would provide personnel to supervise the erection of structures. Perhaps even more important, men would be available during the life of a structure to make minor mechanical adjustments. These adjustments are especially needed during the first few years of use.

A well-known mail-order house is said to have abandoned the sale of pre-cut standardized houses partly because it could not stand behind the product with its usual guarantee. The firm lacked the local mechanical service to make adjustments to satisfy the buyers. Apparently the product and the merchandising methods were good, but the firm could not take care of minor cases of trouble for lack of a field staff of mechanics.

All these elements should combine to give farmers a construction service where they may not now have such service, give them quality at relatively low prices, give them some of the advantages of technological improvements, and assure them houses, barns, and other buildings of modern and efficient design when they are ready to order them.

Over-all Corporation

Many of these advantages might be achieved by the independent action of each regional cooperative but the additional buying power of the over-all corporation would be important for rather evident reasons.

1. The national corporation would have a better opportunity to attract engineers and architects of the highest caliber and independence of thought. The technical staff must

Century Plus

Although 1944 marked the hundredth anniversary of the Rochdale principles, farmer cooperatives in America have much deeper roots. Their seeds were sown in the pioneer days... Corn-husking bees and barn raisings are but two early examples of the cooperative spirit that has long flourished among American farmers.

—W. G. Hoag

break with tradition to the extent of pioneering in materials and labor-saving methods. Economy of space in design is more easily obtained than economy in production and engineering standards.

2. The national corporation would have greater power when bargaining for supplies and would gain reduced prices for farmers.

3. The national corporation would probably try to provide an adequate market for the products of any manufacturing enterprise it found desirable to patronize or to operate. The larger the market for a given product, the more readily can factories be located on sites that involve the lowest transportation costs. Moreover, so far as a forecast of future cost-price relationships is possible, factories can be planned to be of the correct size so they can operate near the least-cost point and thus be able to sell products at comparatively low prices. A national corporation might be in a better position than would a regional cooperative so to plan its operations as to achieve the greatest efficiency. So far as such planning permits, the size of plants could be designed to operate at that scale of production at which costs per unit of output would be least.

Financing

Credit facilities of the Nation are well adapted to the needs of a farmers' cooperative construction service. By conforming to high-credit standards, the corporation and the regional cooperatives could obtain commodity, operating, and facility loans from the banks for cooperatives. These banks, which are under the general supervision of the Farm Credit Administration, could provide short- or long-term funds for merchandise purchases and other operating needs, or for purchase of facilities like warehouses, factories, equipment, and forests. Rates of interest for such loans by banks for cooperatives are reasonable.

Commercial banks are important sources of credit for cooperatives. Credit pools now being organized by groups of commercial banks should find a cooperative construction service to be a very satisfactory outlet for short- and intermediate-term loans.

Individual farmers would continue to use one or more of the many existing credit facilities. If the Farm Security Administration or any other public agency should advertise for bids for the construction of farm dwellings or barns, the nearest regional supply purchasing cooperative could enter a bid. If the system operates as anticipated, it could bid successfully.

Value Received

No matter whence the purchasing power of a farmer comes—whether from his own savings, credit advances, or public grants—the money used for housing and other structural purposes should have above-average purchasing power if it is spent through an efficient farmers' cooperative purchasing organization that supplies building materials and services at reasonable prices. If used to buy goods and services from a well-managed, integrated, and enterprising cooperative, organized in the interests of the farmers, each hard-earned and carefully saved dollar, when spent, could be expected to bring adequate value in return.

NEW LAND SETTLERS: *What They Say*

By W. U. FUHRIMAN. *Perhaps those who are thinking about settling on new land or about the problems of managing settlement would like to have some direct testimony from men and families who have recently worked their way through the first few years.*

INSUFFICIENT funds, inadequate equipment, lack of practical knowledge of irrigation under the specific conditions of the new project, and maladjustment between forage-crop production and livestock numbers are the most important handicaps which settlers on new irrigation projects are likely to face. Poor roads and unsatisfactory sources of domestic water also may hinder their progress. Dust is a nuisance and it is ever-present during the dry season when new lands are being cleared, leveled, and brought under irrigation. Paucity of community services, public utilities, and social life is regretted by women settlers. Long hours, hard work, and many inconveniences must be endured. Settlers generally should be prepared to accept these as part of the settlement process.

These generalizations grew out of the experience of families who settled on the Vale-Owyhee Project in Oregon during the late 1930's.

This project contains about 100,000 acres of irrigable land lying adjacent to land that has been under irrigation for decades. It is an area of family-size irrigated farms, general and diversified in nature and similar to those that are expected to develop on the Deschutes Project in Oregon and the Columbia Basin Project in Washington.

The backgrounds and previous experiences of the people who settled this new land differed greatly. Some had been reared in Western irrigated areas and were well acquainted with irrigation farming. Some came from the Dust Bowl and other parts of the country and knew little or nothing about irrigated farming. Some were native-born, others were immigrants. Some had fairly adequate financial resources and were equipped to clear and subjugate their land almost entirely by mechanical means. Others had practically no resources and cleared out the sagebrush with a grubbing hoe. In a few cases several families had migrated from a particular locality and settled as groups. Other families came alone. Some had previously enjoyed a relatively high level of living, whereas others were accustomed to privation. Such differences in background are naturally reflected in standards and hence in the settlers' ideas regarding the difficulties of settlement.

A survey of settlers' progress and status on this project was made in 1939, and early in 1945 the survey was repeated by personal interview. Toward the close of each interview, the farmer was asked what he considered to be the main difficulties in settling of new land. Leading up to this question the investigator pointed out that probably after the war many farmers—servicemen and others—most of whom have had little or no experience in bringing undeveloped lands under irrigation, will think about settling on the new projects. It was emphasized that these would-be settlers should understand the prospective problems. Then the farmer was asked what he believed to be the most difficult problems that will confront these settlers. In addition, he was asked specifically whether a lack of sufficient credit at any time had prevented his making desirable improvements or acquiring equipment or livestock which, in his opinion, would have been to his advantage.

About Credit

Lack of credit with which to buy adequate equipment and livestock was a handicap frequently mentioned. Of the 55 settlers who expressed opinions, 36 believed they would have made greater progress if they could have had additional funds. The other 19 said that lack of credit had never been a handicap; many of these men were fairly well supplied with funds for their farms, but the dwellings and farm buildings of some were, or had been, inadequate.

There was a rather widespread feeling that the credit extended by the Farm Security Administration and other agencies had contributed greatly to the progress of the settlers. Farmers used such expressions as "We wouldn't have made it if it hadn't been for the FSA," "The FSA program is very good because it is a little lenient during hard years," "Seed loans were our salvation." A few thought that the suggestions and supervision given by the lending agencies helped. It was usually felt that "too much should not be expected of the farm family during the settlement stage." In general, settlers thought it would take about 3 years to bring a farm on new land to a paying condition.

Expressions regarding a desirable loan policy were not all in the same direction. Lack of "freedom to use funds as they wished" had hindered the progress of several farmers, they believed. A few had some misgivings about using credit: "Credit is

Farmer Ability

In my personal contact with American farmers, whether they are tilling the soils of Georgia, New York, or California, I have come to have the greatest appreciation of their ability to think clearly, to act wisely, and to solve their difficulties.

—Lloyd S. Tenny

something we have stayed away from," one said. Another: "We did not borrow. We played it pretty safe. Perhaps we didn't borrow enough."

About Equipment

Lack of adequate equipment to clear, level, and operate the farm properly was mentioned as a serious handicap to many settlers. Apparently not one would hesitate to recommend that farmers go in debt to buy or otherwise procure the use of good equipment. A few cautioned against buying too much at the beginning, but even these said that adequate equipment was essential to satisfactory progress.

Several warned against too much investment in farm dwellings at the outset. "Build a basement house until you can afford a better one," said several. A few felt that credit has been misused: "A little credit is better than a lot," "My neighbor has a fine-looking house but too big a mortgage," "A lot of people won't bring living down to where they can make a go of it." But apparently none of the settlers thought that he personally had been given too much credit.

About Water

Problems relating to irrigation and land use were the next most frequently mentioned. The farmers had in mind difficulties arising in connection with the proper handling of land and with proper irrigation. Several settlers pointed out that they had had years of experience on irrigated farms but this did not prevent their making serious blunders before they learned how to handle water correctly on new land. They were surprised to find that new land responded so differently to irrigation than old land and that different soils require such different treatment. Water does not readily penetrate some soils on this project. Farmers on these soils were particularly impressed with the necessity of adapting irrigation practices to soil conditions.

Settlers from the Middle West who had had no experience with irrigation recalled with amusement their early attempts at trying "to make the water behave." One gave a graphic description of how he and his wife and two children, armed with hoes and shovels and assorted equipment, tried to take care of the first stream of water turned onto their land. After struggling for 2 or 3 hours they were exhausted; they turned the water down the ditch and went for advice to a neighbor.

Many settlers said that irrigation was definitely their chief trouble during the first year or two. Besides making the water "behave" they needed to know when to irrigate, how to lay out their land, and what methods of irrigation to use for different crops under various conditions of slope and soils. Several now realize clearly that differences in crops, soils, and slope affect irriga-

Seamless

A seamless web—the unity of land and water and men.

—David E. Lilienthal

tion requirements. They reported that considerable loss of crops and perhaps some loss of soil during the first years could be attributed directly to inadequate knowledge concerning irrigation. One of the most successful farmers said that it took him years to find the best method of bringing his raw land under irrigation.

About Crops

Responses indicated that mistakes were made in selecting crops to be grown. They included such expressions as "farmers need to study the soil before they decide," "farmers should give more attention to what crops to grow during the first years," and "settlers should be more willing to learn from the county agent about crops."

About Marketing

Marketing of farm products was considered. Settlers recalled the stacks of surplus alfalfa hay that dotted the landscape at times during the first years. Others emphasized that there was not enough livestock on the project to consume the forage and pointed out difficulties in acquiring livestock and in marketing livestock products. Lack of all-weather roads was frequently given as a serious obstacle in getting dairy products to market and as retarding the development of dairying.

Settlers recognized that production and marketing problems are interrelated. Several mentioned the desirability of keeping a closer balance between livestock numbers and forage production, in order to avoid disastrously low prices for hay. Surprisingly little mention was made of low farm prices as such, possibly because the recollections regarding stacks of surplus hay and impassable roads were so vivid.

About Houses

As the dwelling quarters of families were, and in many cases still are, seriously inadequate one might expect that housing would be prominent in the list of problems, but very little was said about these inadequacies. Apparently in retrospect they did not loom large among the privations. Perhaps they had been expected. The housewives remembered more about the dust—as dust. A few of the early settlers lived for 2 or 3 years in shacks without glass windows but the dust, which is almost inevitable when new land is broken, had been an irritation even to families in good houses. But regardless of memories, when the families were questioned regarding their plans for the postwar period, improvement in their houses took first place. Most of the families now have electricity, considerable electrical equipment, and a good source of culinary water. Lack of good water had been a previous trial and even in 1945 a few families were still hauling water.

About Services

Appreciation for the assistance the settlers had received from various sources was frequently expressed. Besides the favorable comments concerning the services of the FSA and other lending agencies, the help of the county agricultural agent, the Bureau of Reclamation, and the Rural Electrification Administration was mentioned as well as governmental effort to "keep the price of new land down". Tribute often was

paid to some good neighbor who had given practical advice and assistance.

Their Suggestions

The farmers seemed convinced that the land in each new project is likely to be different in some important respect from land on other projects and that the effect of such differences can be fully determined only by experience. One farmer suggested that some Federal or State agency get practical farmers to try out crops and practices on a new project before it is opened for general settlement. He did not have in mind the usual experiment station farm. He wanted the Government to furnish water and the use of the land free to a few good farmers and let them learn by actual experience under these new farming conditions the best method of handling water and of bringing the land under irrigation in different parts of a new project. This experience, he believed, would prevent the loss of 1 to 2 years of work by other settlers.

Most farmers were apparently convinced that a certain degree of learning by the trial-and-error method was unavoidable on new irrigated projects. A few said that land development by some agency before the time of settlement would be advantageous, but this view was not widely voiced.

The people recognized that considerable information and assistance had been available through the county agent's office even in the early years, but many settlers had failed to take advantage of these services. Most of the settlers thought that more technical assistance—such as could be supplied by county agents, irrigation engineers, livestock specialists, and economists—would be particularly helpful during the first years. They thought new settlers needed technical assistance in laying out their farmsteads, in planning and installing irrigation systems, in deciding what crops to grow, and in irrigating and caring for growing crops.

The families mentioned the necessity for satisfactory roads. Their recollections concerning poor roads were associated with the troubles of getting children to school and in marketing, and less frequently with the mere getting to town.

Those who had come to the project with little money suggested that settlers keep a few cows from the start, so they would have a small monthly cash income for buying groceries. Others cautioned against cultivating too much land the first year, particularly if experience and equipment were lacking. Others who had recently cleared additional new land said—in the words of one—that with their present experience and equipment it was "no trick at all to clear and put in an additional 40 to 80 acres" of new land in a year.

Opinions regarding the most important requirements for successful subjugation and settlement of new land on irrigation projects differ considerably among experienced settlers, but they indicated clearly that sufficient finances, proper equipment, and "know how," are among the primary essentials. They think that the settlement of new areas always involves much hard work, undoubted inconveniences, possibly some privation, but that those who pull through adequately feel a definite satisfaction.

Veterans ON *British Farms*

By L. F. EASTERBROOK. *Veterans who want to go in for agriculture in Britain find that arrangements have been made for them but that a frank talk about farm life precedes training.*

AFTER World War I there was a keen desire among many of those who had fought, to take up the farming life. That was the case in Britain. The life, of course, is not so idyllic as men, under the clamor and misery and regimentation of war, are sometimes inclined to picture it. A few give it up on early acquaintance, others fail; but in Britain after 1918, quite a number made good under the land-settlement schemes for ex-servicemen.

Now again, the thoughts of men who have been fighting are turning to the land. But this time there is no immediate prospect of an official land-settlement scheme on any considerable scale for demobilized men. There is not the labor nor are there the materials to create the new holdings, even if suitable land not already occupied were available on a sufficient scale.

What is being done is to arrange a training scheme: (1) for those without agricultural experience to be trained at the Nation's expense for paid jobs on farms and (2) for those with some experience, or those without it who show particular promise, to be given more specialized training for supervisory jobs in farming.

Britain is arranging to train any number up to 100,000 under this scheme. They will be trained on selected private farms, officially supervised, and for this purpose will come under the care of the County War Agricultural Executive Committees. They will live either on the farms or in lodgings or hostels within reasonable distance. Wherever possible, accommodation will be found for the men's wives during the training period.

But some men will want to take farms on their own account, and will have the capital to do so. Naturally, they are not prevented from taking over any existing holding, but if they have no previous experience, they are being thoroughly warned of the snags and advised to get some practical knowledge, perhaps using the training scheme, before venturing on their own.

Farming is of all types in Britain, from the concern that requires $100,000 capital or more to the family farm with only a few hundred dollars behind it. There are farms mainly devoted to cereals or to livestock; there are truck farms in the fertile areas, and fruit farms. But most British farms are mixed farms, specializing, for example, in milk

production but growing some of the feeding crops. Most of the farms are small, only about 15 percent exceeding 150 acres.

A typical British farmer before the war would have had perhaps a dozen cows on 50 to 70 acres as his main source of income. He would have invested $2,000 to $5,000 in it, and with a few poultry and pigs to help out would have made say $12 a week. In unlucky years he made a loss; in good years he made more; but the average was about $12 weekly. No one knows what he is going to make in the transition period, but there is a reasonable expectation that it will be a little more than in 1939.

On the other hand, if the ex-serviceman takes on a hired man's job, he is guaranteed a national weekly minimum wage of $14, and if he is any good he should be sure of $16. If he is really good, he ought to be able to get $18 to $20, he escapes the worries of the man farming on his own, and he almost certainly will work shorter hours. But he won't be his own boss.

Plain Talk

Ex-servicemen who are thinking of farming have the position put squarely to them. They are told that life in the country is very different from life in the towns and in some ways more lonely. But the social environment of the English system of villages, with houses for the local population grouped together around the church and the inn, with usually a village green or playing field for outdoor games and sports, and a village hall for dances, whist drives, cinema shows and so on, might make a Middle Westerner think the life a gregarious one. But there are not the shops or the amusements or the specially built cinemas; and cottages are often without the modern comforts such as electricity, gas, piped water, and indoor sanitation. Men thinking of this sort of life are told to make sure that their wives will be content with it.

Recompenses

On the other hand, they are told that life on the land has much to offer those who accept its conditions. It is healthy and "out-of-doors"; there is not the same rush of traveling as in town; there is not a foreman at one's elbow, and the work is varied, changing with the seasons. For small farmers, it means independence, and for all it means the satisfaction of seeing the completion of the job they have started.

More Capital

As regards working capital for taking a small farm in Britain, more of it is required than in 1939, for most things are dearer—from cows to dairy buckets. Where a 200- to 250-acre farm might be taken on with $12,000 to $14,000 capital, or say $60 per acre, a farm of 50 to 100 acres would probably need $100 to $120 per acre. Holdings of 4 or 5 acres for truck farming need the most—about $200 to $400 at the present time.

These are no more than generalizations. In Britain, as in the United States, there are always the men who have started with nothing and made good on the land. Many a hired man has begun with a sitting of eggs, hatched them out, sold the produce and saved the money until he could buy a sow, sold the litter, saved the money again and eventually scraped together enough to begin on his own.

Rural Churches ON *Good* AND *Poor Land*

By T. S. BUIE. *This subject assumed sudden new significance when an economist declared that in his work throughout the country he found many rural churches actively supporting the constructive forces in what he termed the race between Time and Catastrophe in the making of the peace.*

OUR PEOPLE within the past decade have awakened as never before to their dependence upon the land. This is true in city as well as country. In large measure the awakening has come through the educational and action programs of Federal, State, and local agencies. Then the heavy demands for food and other products of the soil in the prosecution of the war have intensified the people's interest.

Soil must be protected and saved, not for the purpose of holding it as such but that we may have an abundance of agricultural products and that the people who wrest their living from the soil may be better fed, better clothed, better housed, and better able to contribute to the institutions that should serve them. Worn-out eroded farms cannot compete with high-producing units nor can communities composed of such farms support social institutions that are equal to those on better land, or that are in keeping with the needs of their own people.

To evaluate in economic terms the relationship between the productiveness of land and the support of rural churches as a leading local institution, a study was made by the Soil Conservation Service of 222 rural churches of the Upper South Carolina Methodist Conference, located almost exclusively in the Piedmont section. Damage from soil erosion there ranges from moderate to extremely severe. Technicians of the SCS who were familiar with local land conditions, classified the 222 churches into three groups, according to the condition of the land in the community surrounding each church: A—Moderately eroded areas, 47 churches; B—Areas ranging from moderately to severely eroded, 89; and C—Areas where the surrounding land was severely eroded and mostly unsuited for cultivated crops, 86 churches.

Information as to the membership and attendance at the regular services was obtained from the resident pastors. Annual Conference reports for the years 1939, 1940, and 1941 provided information on contributions.

The average membership per church ranged from 160 for the 47

churches in the area of moderately eroded land to 132 for the 89 churches in the moderately to severely eroded areas, and to 105 from the 86 churches surrounded by severely eroded land. Thus there is evidence of a direct relationship between the size of the church membership and the severity of erosion in the community of the church. Abandonment of localities is reflected in smaller congregations.

Rural folk of the Southeast are fundamentally church-going and, on the whole, they support their churches by attending the services and by money contributions to the extent of their ability. The survey showed that the percentage of members attending services was nearly as large for the churches on the most eroded land as for those where the land retained more of its original productiveness. The range from 49 to 46 percent—in rounded figures—was not significant. As measured by attendance the members of churches in the most eroded localities are just as interested as are those who live and work on less eroded land.

Erosion Defeats

A definite inverse ratio was found, however, between the contributions to a church and the extent of erosion of the land surrounding it. The 3-year average contribution to the churches ranged downward from $1,135 for the A group of churches to $762 for the B group, and to $533 for the C group. These differences were determined to be statistically significant.

Farm families who live on the more severely eroded land have less to divide with their church, so the contributions are smaller but the decrease in per capita contributions is not nearly so great as the decrease in total contributions because the people are fewer in these churches. Average annual per capita contributions for all purposes were $7.09, $5.78, and $5.08 for groups A, B. and C, respectively.

Contributions for building and repairs, Sunday School, Women's Missionary Society, benevolences, and support of an orphanage likewise varied directly with the condition of the land: they averaged $559 yearly in each church on the best land; $373 for each church in localities that are only moderately eroded, and $225 for those where erosion is most severe.

Contributions for the support of the pastor show consistent variation in accordance with the erosion condition. Where erosion was least, the pastor's average annual salary was $431 from each church. In the B group, it approximated $300; but pastors serving churches on the most severely eroded land received, on an average, only $241 a year from each church—less than $5 a week. All these low incomes necessitate the grouping of churches—sometimes as many as six—under one minister, with consequent reduction in service. The small contributions, especially where the poorest and most eroded

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Their Own

They love their land because it is their own and scorn to give aught other reason why.

—Fitz-Greene Halleck

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land is found, mean that these localities have the less experienced or less capable pastors. In the very places where the need is greatest, the leadership is poorest.

To Strengthen

According to general church leaders in the South, one of their greatest problems is the economic condition of the rural churches. Because the welfare of these rural churches is so vitally related to the welfare of their constituent members, if there is to be improvement it must come through strengthening the status of the people who make up the membership. They are coming to realize that one of the best ways of accomplishing this end is through a more efficient use of the soil resources.

The signs are encouraging. Those who prepare training programs for rural ministers are asking agricultural workers to discuss sound land use in the course of the training. In turn, these leaders and farmers are working more closely together to develop a better understanding of their mutual problems.

Stewards

Another encouraging sign is that church leaders in the Southeast have become deeply concerned over erosion. At one of the few general rural life conferences held in the Southeast—Columbia, Miss. in 1943—a principal objective was "to enable farmers to recognize their obligations as stewards of the soil." This phrase "stewards of the soil" certainly expresses a sound attitude toward the land.

Further recognition of the need for this kind of attitude was given at last year's State-wide rural life conference conducted by Governor Thomas L. Bailey at Jackson, Miss. More than 1,800 religious and agricultural leaders attending this conference took part in an impressive church service dedicated to the seed, the soil, and the sowers. This dedicatory service, developed by the Reverend James W. Sells, Methodist pastor of Crystal Springs, Miss., is now being used by many churches of several denominations.

Consequence

The people of a land reflect that land. And people with pinched faces and hopeless spirits have no excitement in freedom and security and the dream of democracy.

—Clare Leighton

Resolution

Later, at the quadrennial conference of the Methodist Church at Kansas City Governor Bailey introduced a resolution which said in part:

"Human welfare depends upon the proper use of the soil and other natural resources. Accordingly we call upon our people to recognize their responsibility to God for the conservation, the development, and the right use of the total resources of a rural community." The resolution was adopted unanimously.

To the extent that this philosophy is accepted and applied, the land, the people, and the churches will be safe and will be in position to help safeguard others.

Books

SIXTY MILLION JOBS. By *HENRY A. WALLACE*. Simon and Schuster. New York. 83 pages.

AN UNCOMMON MAN: HENRY WALLACE AND 60 MILLION JOBS. By *FRANK KINGDON*. The Readers Press. New York. 98 pages.

HENRY WALLACE'S book is essentially a statement of what he believes is the next major job of the United States if it is to keep currently in effect the fundamental pattern on which the Nation was built and by which it has developed.

That program is full employment; for the years immediately ahead—sixty million jobs.

What gives Mr. Kingdon's "An Uncommon Man" its greatest interest is its documentation of the typically American background and experience out of which Mr. Wallace's program and philosophy developed: The grandfather and father who preceded and influenced him as leaders in the Iowa farm community with its catastrophic economic shifts. His own early interest in the family farm journal and in successful experimentation with and marketing of improved seed corn. His active entry into national politics and how character and experience combined to make him the country's leading exponent of his present position.

That position is most effectively stated in Mr. Wallace's own presentation. In brief, he contends:

That political democracy cannot long withstand extensive, chronic unemployment because the hopelessness it would engender would find no continuing grounds for faith in that democracy and it would readily support political cure-alls.

That economic democracy is in no way incompatible with full employment; that, in fact, full employment signifies the very opposite of Government operation of business. It will be achieved, primarily, through the initiative and intelligence of private enterprise, once certain essential aids and assurances have been provided through Government action. These comprise, first, aid where extraordinary risks exist, especially early ventures into new fields. (He points out that our Government has always provided such aids, for example, by the Homestead Act, by subsidizing the railroads, shipping, aviation. For today and tomorrow, equivalent "backlogs of employment," would be aid to housing, rural electrification, soil conservation, more river valley development, etc.). The second essential assurance is a continued, steady market for our products. (Here, too, a whole series of considerations is brought up: essential need for steady consumer purchasing power, a "two-way international market" as a stabilizer, tax policy geared to encourage production and adaptable to the particular problems of a given time, incompatibility of full employment with cartels which tend to benefit from

scarcity, and withholding of inventions).

That full employment is cheap, unemployment ruinous. Mass unemployment would again require huge Federal relief expenditures. Full employment would furnish a national income large enough to sustain an adequate tax program and an adequate demand for privately produced goods to keep the economy in balance.

That it will take general support at the grass roots, much hard thinking about methods, and character, to put a program of full employment into effect.

Mr. Wallace believes he has ample evidence that the grass roots are prepared to deal with local aspects of the program, but the complexity of the National scene is such as to call for the utmost in understanding and effort.

As for the public program to serve as stimulus and stabilizer, it calls for:

1. The annual submission to Congress by the President of a *National* budget, that is, a budget dealing not alone with Federal Government income and expenditure but with the estimated income and expenditure of consumers, of business, of State and local Governments, as well as the Federal Government.

2. Such adjustments as might be indicated by budget estimates in tax policy, programs for stimulation of private employment, public works, etc.

3. Elimination of cartels.

4. Stimulation of research by the establishment and support of a Central Technical Authority of the Federal Government, and rules which would make its findings available to all who could use them to expand business enterprise.

"The danger," says Mr. Wallace, summarizing alternatives, "is that we shall not appreciate the all important fact that it will be fully as difficult, fully as demanding of our patriotism, to win the peace as it was to win the war . . . That . . . danger we can avert only by realizing the price we shall have to pay if we fail."

—*Frieda S. Miller*

TIN HORNS AND CALICO. By *HENRY CHRISTMAN*. Henry Holt and Company. New York. 377 pages.

LESS THAN a century ago a few families, closely intermarried, ruled in kingly splendor over a feudal empire of 300,000 people occupying nearly 2 million acres in the fertile Hudson Valley. The persistent and ultimately triumphant struggle of these landless people against their feudal-like landlords is the theme of this stirring dama of a critical period in the evolution of some of America's most precious landed institutions.

The patroon system of land holding established in New Netherland by the Dutch in 1629, proved equally lucrative to the British who took over 35 years later and almost outdid their predecessors with big estates and exploitation of the tillers of the soil. Thus, the British names of

Morris, Jay, and Livingston are found along with those of Van Rensselaer, Verplanck, and Schuyler as eminent landlords of the Hudson River country.

Terms of the "durable lease" or "incomplete sale" under which land was occupied by tenants, provided for annual rents in the form of dues and services to the landlord who in case of sale retained the option of collecting one-fourth of the sale price or recovering full title to the land at three-fourths of the market price. The system hung together for two centuries mainly because only a few landlords collected the dues and services. In 1839, Stephen Van Rensselaer, "The Good Patroon", died and his heirs set about to collect hundreds of thousands of dollars in back rents.

This reversal of policy meant bankruptcy and dispossession for hundreds of well-to-do farm families who had been hard at work improving the land for generations. To save their farms and homes, farmers disguised in calico costumes as Indians—symbols of the Boston tea party and original ownership of the soil—forcibly halted the eviction of their neighbors. Tin dinner horns reverberating across the valleys of the Hudson countryside, warned that the hated landlords' emissaries were approaching.

On July 4, 1839, the tenants in mass meeting resolved in writing "we will take up the ball of the Revolution where our fathers stopped it and roll it to the final consummation of freedom and independence of the masses." Their action clearly demonstrates that when their farms and homes are at stake people will fight for them if need be, even though institutions are trampled underfoot. The Lexington and Concord farmers of Revolutionary days, the vigilante committees of the Midwest pioneer era, the farmers of the Hudson country in the 1840's, and the Iowa farmers of the early 1930's all protected their homes, with force if necessary, when endangered.

After 7 years of strife often flaming into open warfare and bloodshed, democracy triumphed over feudalism when, in 1846, New York's revised statutes prohibited agricultural land leases for a longer period than 12 years and outlawed annual fines, services, quarter sales, and similar restraints upon land transfers.

This is a fast moving and fact-studded story of a little known epoch in our history. It is stimulating, entertaining, and informative reading for those interested in the growth of democracy and the development of landed institutions. For the social scientist it is an excellent model of how facts and statistics gleaned through painstaking research of newspapers, court records, handbills, books, letters, and discussions with direct descendants of history makers may be woven into an analytical yet interesting story which many people will read and remember and most of them will enjoy.

The narrative is pleasantly supplemented with many illustrations and anti-rent songs and ballads, and a comprehensive bibliography.

—John F. Timmons

FOOD OR FAMINE: THE CHALLENGE OF EROSION. By *WARD SHEPARD*. The MacMillan Co. New York. 225 pages.

MANY PEOPLE should read this book, particularly those who won't like it. The author's thesis, stated and restated tenaciously and with vigor throughout the book, develops forcefully into a demand for a comprehensive integrated land management program in its broadest aspects, carried out by a "unified administrative - planning - construction agency with full powers to do a full job." This is another welcome demonstration that large orders can be written in small volumes. How *not* to be gone with the wind and water is the import of Mr. Shepard's compact and dead-serious contribution to the improvement of world welfare.

Most of the facts, many of the arguments advanced, are not new. Through eyes, lungs, and pocketbooks the awesome effects of erosion and careless use of land have filtered into many brains. With war now curbed as man's direst extinction threat (we hope), the battle to preserve the crucial 18 inches of the earth's top crust that keeps man out of a bed-rock gutter is just beginning. It will require all the coordinated research, cooperative planning, and sustained effort that a war-weary democracy can muster. The author deals resolutely with irresponsible land use and with needed public controls on such use. He reconciles these controls with private enterprise and shows the way toward democratic participation in planning and development. He assesses the promise of watershed planning and valley authorities and he does not obscure the lags and limitations. He endorses the decade of effective work of the Soil Conservation Service and to an enlarged and strengthened agency of the same type he would assign an over-all planning responsibility for the nation's land conservation program.

The author questions that private enterprise, unaided and uncontrolled, has either the organization or the finances to do the critical job of land management that must be done if man's present wanton treatment of his vital land resource is to be stopped. But he would meet private enterprise half way, challenge its sense of social responsibility and cut it in on the profits, somewhat as such enterprise has been met, challenged and remunerated in the State Soil Conservation districts. He would acquire as a public trust for rehabilitation the worn-out and low-grade land, he would establish a land reconstruction work corps to improve it and to provide supplementary work and wages to low-income land workers, and he would provide technical advisory service to all operators on how to use farm, timber, and grazing lands conservatively and with profit. He would finance this program not by annual deficit financing but in part by a capital financing plan which would segregate current operating expenses from long time capital investment and in part by effective systems of contractual credit to private land-users.

The arresting portion of the book is the discussion of watershed management and valley authorities. Here is where most reader disagreement will probably arise. But agreed or not, this section demands imme-

diate and strict attention. Using TVA enthusiastically both as springboard and as example, Mr. Shepard reviews the critical problems attending the development of integrated watershed use and reduces them to basic issues: (1) The conflict of such Valley Authorities with old-line functional agencies, (2) the matter of local representation in watershed authorities, and (3) the need for national coordination of such authorities—all problems now looming as stormy national crises. For the first he prescribes the clear demarcation of existing agency function and Congressional definition and directive in the enabling legislation establishing Valley Authorities; for the second, a "Watershed Congress" made up of local representatives with advisory powers and pressure sanctions, and for the third an over-all national planning agency with longer teeth than those of TVA and stronger ones than were given to the National Resources Planning Board.

The book can be read in an evening; its contents will provide philosophic, economic and political tinder for years to come.

—*John H. Provinse*

AGRICULTURAL PRICE CONTROL. By *GEOFFREY S. SHEPHERD*. The Collegiate Press, Inc. Ames, Iowa. 361 pages.

AS THE AUTHOR himself says, this book deals almost entirely with price floors and there is only scant reference to ceilings which, it is assumed, will soon vanish.

As for the author, Geoffrey Shepherd is well qualified to consider the question whether it is either desirable or necessary that the Government should aid farmers by supporting agricultural prices, especially as it relates to feed grains and livestock. Shepherd has had an excellent chance to observe farmers, farm leaders, and the so-called action programs and their administrators, both as a member of the staff at Iowa State College since 1925 and as an occasional consultant to the Commodity Credit Corporation, Bureau of Agricultural Economics, and Office of Price Administration since 1941.

The result is a book that contains a great deal of material which should be of value to those whose special interest lies within the price field. But since the general reader will be more interested in the conclusions than in the economic and statistical detail and since the author has stated his conclusions in his own italics, this review concerns itself with the conclusions alone or, more precisely, with the "practical lessons" which Shepherd feels the activities of the last 15 years have demonstrated.

Storage programs, which merely put products into storage at one time and take them out at another, can stabilize prices but cannot raise their level over a period of years. It seems to the reviewer, however, there are conditions where storage operations which assist farmers in carrying for-

ward supplies for some time could result in a greater farm income than would otherwise be realized even though the average level of prices might not be raised, while the author himself recognizes that there is also a good argument for stabilizing the year-to-year flow of feed into actual use in connection with his second conclusion:

The different farm products require different price programs. As a general rule this is the first argument used by most commodity groups to advance their own special interests. Shepherd, of course, does not intend it this way and his actual argument is that there are different classes of farm commodities which call for different approaches—that supplies of corn and other feedstuffs, for example, should be stabilized while in the case of perishable crops it would be better if annual returns to farmers were stabilized.

Agricultural prices cannot be raised or lowered over a period of years merely by announcing higher or lower price floors. They can be raised or lowered over a period of years only by operations which control agricultural production, or the demand for farm products, or both. Agreed.

Efforts to raise agricultural prices by reducing agricultural production have not borne much fruit; and if they had succeeded, they would not have had much effect on farm income . . . but . . . efforts to control agricultural prices by controlling the demand for agricultural products have borne some fruit. Although the reviewer agrees with the reasoning behind these conclusions, the first one seems to understate what has been accomplished while the second one has not as yet been adequately tested. That is, there has not as yet been an aggressive all-out effort to bring about a controlled increase in demand.

Agricultural price control is a dangerous tool, but probably it will continue to be employed. Agricultural price control is a dangerous tool but it is also an equally useful tool and one that is likely to be used to an increasing extent. Administrators will get into difficulties, pressures will force activities which are too costly or ill conceived, and activities of a considerable number of farmers and tradesmen will occasionally be restricted. Shepherd concludes, however, that *price-control activities in agriculture constitute a gigantic economic laboratory and medium for mass education in economics* and that on the whole, the end result will be generally beneficial.

—*O. V. Wells*

Buy Victory Bonds

New Crops for the New World. Edited by *CHARLES MORROW WILSON*. The Macmillan Company. New York. 295 pages.

NO ONE can fail to find some interest in reading *New Crops for the New World,* a collection of 16 contributions by 14 writers introduced by Charles Morrow Wilson, and no one can fail to be pleased with the book's 75 photographs excellently reproduced on 32 plates. It is a volume of striking variety both in content and manner of presentation.

If plants do not attract a reader's interest he can read about "The Fashioning of Livestock Breeds," by Albert O. Rhoad, or about silkworms in George E. Adames' "Silks from South America." If farming is not his reading concern he may find that Arthur Bevan's "Forest Resources of Tropical America" is. Even if no particular crop appeals to him as a subject of reading he may find C. P. Clausen's "Biological Control of Insect Pests" very fascinating.

If the descriptive catalog presentation used rather popularly by Wilson Popenoe in "The Undeveloped Field of Tropical Fruit" or more soberly by E. C. Higbee and Atherton Lee in "Drug and Medicinal Crops" does not appeal to him as a style of writing, perhaps B. Y. Morrison's two contributions on "Flowers for the New World" and "American Plants for the Americas" will please him as smoothly flowing presentations of facts in the conversation-like style of an authority on the lecture platform. If he enjoys the skillful use of chronology he will appreciate Walter N. Bangham's topical narrative entitled "Rubber Returns to Latin America." Nearly everyone will value the style of the geneticist Edgar Anderson writing on "Maize in the New World" with as much familiarity for his lay reader as for his subject matter. And there is a charm in George E. Adames' way of relating silk culture to a prospective Brazilian sericulturist and daughter Yolando. "Come, *minha filhinha,* show us pretty dress," Senhor Fernando says in Adames' opening words.

For general readers *New Crops for the New World* is certain to be of great value throughout, and for them it has the spice of variety. Prospective growers of these crops and students of plant introduction will find it to have a great deal of interest, but its full value for them will depend on how their particular concern has been treated and whether their reading will suffer from the vice of variety which this symposium shares with many others. The book's peculiar worth is likely to be in developing still further a public consciousness of the interdependence of the peoples of all nations and their common dependence on the products of agriculture. As Mr. Wilson persuasively writes:

"As never before, all the Americas are as one, and the good of each is inevitably the good of all . . . the new crops for the New World are important to every one of us . . . For no one of us can live without the harvests from earth, and no nation is likely to flourish without the benefits of a good and ever-improving agriculture."

—*Howard Zahniser*

CONFRONTING THE LAND QUESTION. By *JACKSON H. RALSTON.* The American Association for Scientific Taxation. Bayside, New York. 104 pages.

THIS BOOK represents an effort by a long-time follower of Henry George to reexamine the single-tax movement. It is noted that "with the general public Single Tax is either the object of pronounced aversion or at best a want of interest is manifest." In a rather brief space the author gives much information on some of the attempts to put into effect single-tax doctrines. He claims credit for the single-tax movement for the adoption of initiative and referendum provisions in a number of States.

The author finds several instances of modifications in the traditional property tax which he feels are in the direction of the single tax. But he specifically recognizes that "the reform steps have been too slight to have had the influence the Single Taxer would desire."

One of the weaknesses of the typical single tax presentation shows up in the argument that the exemption from taxation for limited periods of new construction results from lessons taught by Henry George's *Progress and Poverty.* This position rests in part on an implied assumption that property taxes are levied in a vacuum. Exemption of certain property does not mean that the equivalent in taxes vanishes. In ordinary practice the taxes simply are shifted to the remaining property on the tax roll. The burden is not lifted from the economic group but is merely shifted about within the group. There is an implied recognition of this point in the discussion of the relation between the value of farm land and the value of the improvements. But the full implications are not developed.

The book closes with the author's program for bringing eventual success to the single tax movement. Twelve steps are listed. Very logically they begin with a recommendation for more adequate statistical work in the field. What follows next is not a series of chronological steps but rather a series of restatements of specific applications of single-tax doctrine. For example, natural resources such as forests, water-power sites, and minerals should be under community management, and tax-reverted land should be retained in public ownership. Then come a general recommendation for a study of constitutional and legal obstacles to action in the various jurisdictions, and a specific recommendation for modifications in intiative and referendum statutes so as to facilitate overcoming such obstacles. And finally there is a plea for a more adequate educational program for advocates of the proposed reform.

—*Gerhard J. Isaac*

U. S. GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE: 1945

Today, America has become one of the most powerful forces for good on earth. We must keep it so. We have achieved a world leadership which does not depend solely upon our military and naval might. We have to fight with other nations in common defense of our freedom. We must now learn to live with other nations for our mutual good.

—Harry S. Truman

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